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ASIATICK RESEARCHES

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TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

SOCIETY,

INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,

FOR ENQUIRING INTO THE

HISTORY AND ANTIQUITIES, THE ARTS, SCIENCES,
AND LITERATURE,

OF

ASIA.

VOLUME THE THIRTEENTH.

CALCUTTA:

PRINTED AT THE CALCUTTA GAZETTE OFFICE, 1820.

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I.

Account of the measurement of an Arc on the Meridian, extending from Latitude 15° 6' 0,2 to Latitude 18° 3' 45", being a further continuation of the former Arc, commencing in Latitude 8° 9' 38".

By LIEUT. COLONEL WILLIAM LAMBTON, 33rd REGIMENT OF FOOT.

Y last communication to the Asiatick Society gave an account of the meridional operations comprehended between the station of observation in Coimbetoor, and that near Gooty, giving an arc whose amplitude was 4° 6′ 11′.28 which being added to the former arc extending from the same station (Putchapolliam) in Coimbetoor, to the station of observation at Punnae near Cape Comorin, gave altogether an arc of 6° 56′21″.82. The arc which is the subject of this paper, commences at the station of observation at Namthabad, near Gooty, and

MEASUREMENT OF AN ARC

Nizam's dominions, as high as the latitude 18° 3 23'.53, being an increase of 2° 57'23'.32, and making in the whole an arc of 9° 53' 45".14 in amplitude, the longest that has ever been measured on the surface of this globe. The great extent of these operations, together with the consistency of the results, will, independant of any foreign measurements, be competent to establish the elliptic hypothesis with respect to the signer of the earth. And that this may be done in the most satisfactory manner, I have contrived to make the length of this section such, that its middle point may be as near the latitude of 16° 34' 44" as possible, because the middle point of the first section falls in 9° 34' 44'; so that in calculating the successive degrees according to the elliptic theory, the computed and measured degrees may be compared.

In my last, it appeared that the mean length of the degree due to the latitude of 11° 37' 49", the middle point between Punnae and Nam. thibad, was 601 0,3 fathours. Since that paper was fent, there has been a small correction applied to the base near Gooty after comparing the chains with the brass standard scale, as will appear in the detailed account of that delicate operation. This correction has fomewhat increased the meridional distance between that base and Yerracondah fouth, and consequently the whole terrestrial arc between Namthabad and Punnae is also increased; which now gives the degree due to latitude 11° 31' 42' equal 60481.55 fathoms. However as there are now three fections, whose respective middle points lie in 9° 34' 44"; 13° 255" and 16° 34' 42"; I have thought it best to take the degrees due to these latitudes, as deduced from actual observations, using each, first, with the French measure, then, with the English measure, and lastly, with the Swedish measure; and thence obtaining a general mean ratio of the polar axis to the equatorial diameter.—The first mean of these three

2

degrees used with the French degree, gives that ratio as 1: 1.0034295. The fecond mean of the same three degrees used with the English degree gives it as 1: 1.0031913; and the third mean of the same three degrees used with the Swedish degree gives it as 1: 1.00324179, and the mean of these three means gives the ratio of the polar to the equatorial diameter as 1: 1.0032895, or the compression at the poles or $\frac{3}{104}$ very nearly: and this ratio has been finally adopted for computing the general scale of degrees both of latitude and longitude, and also of the degrees perpendicular to the meridian, from the equator to the pole.

It is well known to mathematicians, that if a meridian of the earth be an ellipse, whatever may be the compression at the poles, the increments to the first degree of an arc on that meridian to make it equal to any other degree north from it, will always be as the increment to the square of the latitude of that distant d gree, above the square of the latitude of the first degree.—That these Indian operations may rest entirely on themselves, I have adopted this method for computing a succession of nine degrees, beginning with the degree in latitude 9° 34' 44', which is 60472,83 fathoms. The eighth of these degrees falls in latitude 16° 34' 44", and is 60500.12 fathoms.—Now the degree due to latitude 16° 34' 42" as determined by the measurement is 60512.78 fathoms, so that there is only a difference of 356 fathoms, a quantity too inconfiderable to affect the elliptic hypothesis.—This is supposing the degree in latitude 90 34 44" to be right, in which case the compression at the poles would be $\frac{1}{360}$ nearly. But if the compression $\frac{1}{360}$, as deduced from the general mean be supposed correct, and the degree in 9° 34' 44" increased to 60475,13 fathoms (see Art. 16,) the next degree in 10° 34'44, will be 60478,72, and these used will give the compression are nearly: so that by this method, the errors in the

degree due to latitude 9° 34'44" and in that due to latitude 16° 34'42", (which will according to this alteration come out 60507,19 fathoms) may be determined. And it appears that the first is 23 fathoms in desect, and the other 559 fathoms nearly, in excess; both very small quantities, the greatest being less than 7 of a second on the earth's surface.

WITH respect to the compression, it is impossible that $\frac{1}{104}$ can be very far from the truth, fince the whole of the measurements which are entitled to the greatest confidence, are taken into account. The French mathematicians, by using Bouguer's measurement at the Equator with their own, have found the compression to be $\tau_{\tau_{i,\tau}}$ nearly. But if these Indian measurements be correct, Bouguer's degree at the equator is 23 fathoms in excels. I have the highest opinion of that fagacious observer, who appears to have been the most correct of all the academicians sent out at that time, and the only one apprized of the effect of local attraction on the plummet. But to observe in so mountainous a country, and with an instrument far inferior to these now in use, an error of that magnitude is not to be confidered as fur. prifing; yet it will make a confiderable difference in the compression. The celebrated LA LANDE in all his astronomical observations, where the figure of the earth was concerned, invariably used ; and if this be taken in computing the precession of the equinoxes, and the effect of folar nutation, the theory will very nearly agree with observation. The compression is an element of very general importance in the higher branches of physical astronomy; and it is gratifying to think that the quantity deduced from these recent combined measurements is nearly that which has been adopted by the ablest aftronomers, to make the theory agree with observation.

In order to do every possible justice to this important subject, in place of the measurement of degrees due to any particular latitudes, I have used the two longest arcs, viz. the one which I have here given an account of, and that measured by DE LAMBRE and MÉCHAIN between Dunkirk and Barcelona. The first being 598510 fathoms, corresponding with a celestial arc of 9° 53 45. 13; the other 587987 fathoms, corresponding with an arc of 9° 40' 12':2; with these I have investigated the compression by a method similar to that given by Professor PLAYFAIR in the 5th Vol. Edinburgh Philos. Transactions. This method with very long arcs, such as thefe, one would imagine must afford furer refults than by taking fingle degrees due to particular latitudes, where there is much irregularity in their fuccession, as is the case with the French measurements. The compression brought out by this method (see Art. 18) is 1, 1 nearly, which differs very confiderably from what is brought out by the aforefaid general mean; and what is fingular, it is nearly the same as that given by taking the degree in 9° 34' 44" equal 60472.83 fathoms, and the one in 10° 34' 55" equal 60476,89 fathoms, and where the degree in latitude 16° 34' 42" by observation, only differs 3,66 fathoms from the computed one. I have however, for reafons already given, abided by the compression 3 to as brought out by the general comparison.

This meridional feries, which commences at the base near Gooty, is terminated by another base in latitude 18° 2' nearly, which has been measured with more than ordinary attention; and besides the stars observed at Daumergidda for comparing with those observed at the southern stations, several others have been selected for extending the celestial arc several degrees surther to the northward, should time and circumstances prove savorable for that purpose. However, should this

never happen. I am of opinion, that sufficient has been done for establishing the points in question, viz. the elliptical figure, and dimenfions of the earth, the great objects of all the meridional operations. especially those recently performed, which in grandeur and accuracy. must be allowed to exceed any thing of the kind recorded in the history of practical science. The great excellence of the instruments now in use is the chief cause of this superior accuracy; and it is by that fame excellence that irregularities have been discovered which former observers were not aware of, and therefore not prepared to guard against; and the universal principle of attraction, which has long been established, is now found to affect the plummet of a zenith sector, and where there is any unequal force acting in the direction of the meridian, occasioned either by mountains or by different densities of the strata lying to the north and south of the station of observation, the plummet of the fector will be drawn from its vertical position. The French and English operations have been confiderably disturbed by this invisible agent; for so it may be termed, when no mountains are near; and my former observations at Dodagoontals, Bomafundrum, and Paughur have withefied its effects. Having however, left out those flations altogether, the observations at Punnal, Putchapolliam, Namthabad, and Daumergidda, appear to have been entirely free from any anomaly, a circumstance which must give a preference to these extenfive operations over any of the present day.

After having determined the ratio of the polar axis to the equato, rial diameter, their actual lengths are thence obtained, and finally the length of the quadrantal arc of the meridian, from which the French mathematicians have deduced their standard; the 10,000,000th part of which are reduced to inches, being their metre or unit of measure. The measure of the metre here brought is 39,37,08 English inches at the

temperature of 62° , which is within $\frac{1}{30^{\circ}}$ th part of an inch of what the *French* measure will be, when reduced to the same temperature; a quantity altogether insensible.

HAVING brought these meridional operations to so successful a comclusion, it may not be altogether out of place to give some account of the still more extensive geographical ones, of which these have been a principal foundation.—The whole of the peninfula is now completed from Goa on the west, to Masulipatam on the east, with all the interior country from Cape Comprin to the fouthern boundaries of the Nizam's and Marhattas territories. In that great extent of country, every object that could be of use in geography; or in facilitating the detailed furveys of the provinces, has been laid down with precision -All the great rivers sketched in, in a general manner, and all the great ranges of mountain: flightly depicted... The latter part of the survey which takes in the northern part of the peninfula between the latitude of 14°, and fouthern frontiers of the foreign dominions, has been attended with peculiar success, and the districts of Nellore, Guntoor, Palnaud, the ceded diffricts, the Myfoor to the north of 14°, the Soondale country, and the district of Goa, are covered with a net of triangles without a fingle break. The districts of Soondah and Goa have been furveyed by Lieutenant GARLING, of the Madras establishment, who has in his possession a fine instrument made by CARY; and such was my opinion of his accuracy and judgment, that I requested to be furnished with his triangles to include in my general report; and the near coincidence of the fides common to both furveys, has proved that my confidence was not misplaced.

My excursion into the Nizam's country was for the sole purpose of \getting three degrees more to the arc, and it was with some hest-

tation that I entered it at all, from being apprehensive of interruption occasioned by the jewlousy of the inhabitants; but all impediments have been removed by the truly liberal support which I have met with from Mr. HENRY RUSSILL, the Resident at the Nizam's court, who to a zeal for promoting useful science, has added a spirit of national pride in forwarding the object of my labours -By his good offices every appearance of difficulty has vanished; and it is but just to say thus much as a tribute due to his kind and friendly attention.—I at first indeed experienced some delays when my fignal slags were sent forward, and that from not knowing in what diffrict they might fall; but when that happened, an order from the jaghiredar was instantly procured by the minister, and the difficulty removed. - But when it became generally known that I was not furveying their little diffricts, the alarm cealed, and I met with the fame willingness to assist, as I found in every other part of the peninfula, especially among the Gentoo inhabi-The most serious impediments that I shall apprehend to the northward will be from the gangs of plunderers, which infest that quarter when the Army is not in the field.—It will however be a defirable object towards promoting general geography, as well as for giving a basis for local surveys, to extend this work as far to the northward as p. ffible, and to enlarge it, as is intended, so as to take in all the great military roads leading from the ceded districts to Jaulna, Ellichpoor, Naghoor. &c; and when that shall be completed, and the triangles extended from Mafulipatam to Point Palmiras, all which is a part of the work before me, I trust that I shall have contributed my share towards the advancement of Indian geography. Should I live to accomplish all that, there will then be, besides the great extent of territory, already comprehended, a foundation laid for extending this furvey over the whole of the Deckan, through Orissa and the more northern provinces, through the Marhatta dominions; and finally, into the upper districts of Hindustan, and I sincerely hope, that after I relinquish it, some one will be sound possessing zeal, constitution, and attainments wherewith to prosecute it on the principles already followed.—It would indeed be gratifying to me if I could but entertain a distant hope, that a work which I began, and which will then be brought to so considerable a magnitude, should at some future day be extended over British India.

W. LAMBTON.

Hydrabad, September 15, 1815.

1000C

1.—COMPARISON OF THE CHAINS, WITH THE BRASS

Previous to giving any detailed account of this section of the arc, it will be proper to observe, that it became necessary to make some correction in the length of the base near Gooty, on account of an irregularity that was discovered in the standard chain, or rather in the comparative lengths of the two chains. It may be remembered that one of the chains in my possession has always been applied as a standard chain, and having been sent out new in 1802, I have kept it carefully laid by, thinking that while it was clean and never used as a measuring chain, its length would remain invariable; and the comparative lengths of the two chains seemed to be perfectly regular, allowing for the wear of the measuring chain, till previous to measuring the base near Gooty.—At the conclusion of the base near Palamcottah, the excess of the measuring chain above the standard one

was 39.04 divisions of the micrometer head, an excess which I thought rather great, but as there had been a small base measured on the surface of the ground near Tanjore, and the recent experiments made with great care, I rested satisfied, though the increase for the measurement was much greater than usual, being 9.38 divisions. I was however much surprised on comparing them previous to the measurement near Gooty, to find that the excess was only 30.4 divisions, but being 36.3 divisions at the conclusion, I apprehended that there might have been some oversight at Palamcottah, or that the standard chain had increased in its length; in order to determine which, it became absolutely necessary to compare it with the brass standard, which was done in the solutions manner.

As I had not the means of procuring a cast iron bar, and executing the measurement after the manner adopted by the late Mr. RAMSDEN, it occurred to me that if upon a fine surface the chain could be extended its whole length, one hundred feet might be measured off from the standard scale at a given temperature, and by accounting for the differ. ence between the expansion of brass and steel, it would be easy to determine whether the standard chain had suffered any alteration in its length.—For this purpose, I built a brick wall upwards of two feet in height, and something more than 100 seet in length, so that a weight post at one end, and a drawing post at the other, might be fixed in the brick work, and the necessary apparatus applied for drawing out the chain.—The upper surface of this wall was made perfectly horizontal by a spirit level fixed on a straight ruler about four feet in length, and when covered with fine chunam mortar, (a celebrated cement in this country) it was polished, so as to resemble a sheet of glass, an operation at which the workmen here are remarkably expert. After this was com-

pleted, I placed the transit instrument which is used in laying out the base lines, at a convenient distance from one end of the wall, such that the point of a fine pencil at the nearest end might be distinctly seen through the telescope; and by directing it to the other end, a few trials enabled me to fee along the middle of the wall from one end to the other.—After the instrument had been well adjusted, a series of points was then made, about four feet from each other by looking through the telescope, and directing a person with a fine pointed pencil in his hand, to move it until it was brought into the intersection of the wires in the focus of the eye-glass; and in this manner the points were fixed from one extremity of the wall to the other, and a pencil line drawn through This being done, brass screws with polished heads about 1 of an inch in diameter, were each screwed fast into a square piece of lead, leaving the brass button about half an inch about it.—The lead was then funk into the chunam till the brafs coincided with the polifhed furface of the wall, and adjusted by the longitudinal pencil line, and others drawn at right angles to it at certain distances roughly measured by the beam compasses. Of these there were fourteen; viz. five at 2! feet distance, beginning with the nearest end, for the purpose of laying off ten feet from the brass scale; and then one at every ten feet from the last one, to the completion of the hundred.—All these being fixed nearly correct, a fine line was drawn through the whole in the direction of the pencil line already mentioned; on the first of these buttons, a cross perpendicular line was drawn so as to make an interfection with the longitudinal one, and nearly in the center of the brass: this marked the commencement. Every thing being thus prepared and the whole extent of wall shaded by tents, the final meafurement was commenced at about the time of fun-rife, on the 24th March, 1813, having it strictly in view to perform the whole operation, during the same temperature, which seldom varies early in the morning for an hour and a half, and this morning happened to be particularly savorable.

Two feet and a half were then taken off from the brass standard with the most scrupulous exactness, after examining with magnifying glasses the points of the compasses, one person keeping one of the points carefully fixed to a line on the scale, while the other adjusted the opposite point by the screw at the end of the beam.—After being satisfied as to the accuracy of this distance of 21 feet, one point of the beam compasses was fixed on the point of intersection which marked the commencement, while the other point was drawn across the line on the next brass button, making a point of intersection. The beam compasses were then removed to the next button, and so on till ten feet were measured off. A long beam was then used, and the points with apparatus fixed on it, and adjusted to that ten feet; and in a manner fimilar to what has already been described, the remaining ninety feet were measured off and a fine perpendicular line drawn through the last point of intersection. As there was full time to repeat the operation, the measurement was carried back from point to point, when an exact coincidence was observed.

The chain, which, with five thermometers, had been lying close to the wall all night, was then extended at full length; the weight applied, and the arrow at the opposite end brought to coincide with the commencement of the measured line while the whole chain was adjusted by the pencil line drawn along the surface of the wall; and after allowing some minutes for the weight to act freely, the length of the chain was then examined, and sound to exceed the brass measure by 0,0341 inches.

The flandad chain was then taken aside, and the measuring chain which had been laid along with the other, was compared with the measurement, and exceeded it by 0,2297 inches. This chain was put aside and the standard chain a second time applied, and the arrow coincided with the same mark. The measuring chain was also compared a second time but there appeared no sensible difference. From the comparison of the two chains, it appears that ,2297—,0341=,1956 inches, or ,0163 seet, is the excess of the measuring chain above the other. The whole of these operations were begun and completed while the mean temperature given by the five thermometers, was 72°.

Now the expansion of 100 feet of brass due to one degree of temperature exceeds the expansion of the new chain (according to former experiments) due to one degree temperature, by ,00495 inches, and the same chain measured exactly 100 feet by the brass standard in London at the temperature of 50°, therefore (72°—50°)×,00495 gives,1089 inches which the chain ought to have fallen short, had there been no alteration in its length. But it exceeded the brass measure by ,0341 inches, therefore, 1089+,0341 or ,143 inches=,0119 feet, is what the chain has lengthened, and this quantity would be sensibly the same; were the chain compared with the brass standard at the temperature of 50°, for ,0119 feet of seel for 22° of change in temperature would only be contrasted,0000016 feet, a quantity altogether insensible. Hence the standard chain from this measurement may be considered equal 100,0119 feet at the temperature of 50°.

In the latter end of October 1814, about 19 months afterwards, another comparison was made with the brass standard at Hydrabad and in order to ensure still greater accuracy, instead of using magnifying glas-

fes for applying the points of the beam compasses, the two microscopes belonging to the circular instrument were each placed upon an iron tripod with short adjusting screws for feet, so as to raile or lower the microscope for obtaining diffinct vision. The brass standard scale in its mahogany bed was then placed on the table resting on two pieces of very thin board, each having two flat pieces of wood fcrewed on it at fuch a distance as to receive easily the mahogany bed; and these four pieces were of such a thickness, that their surfaces coincided with the furface of the brass scale. They were then moved to a convenient diffance for measuring off 21 feet, and the microscopes placed upon them and brought over the required divisions on the scale, and adjusted by the feet of the tripods to distinct vision. The beam compasses were then laid on the scale, and the points brought by the hand to be nearly 21 feet afunder, and afterwards fixed with care and accuracy by the adjusting screw at one end of the beam. This being done, the process was precisely the same as in the experiments at Bellary having the wall, brafs buttons, &c. in all respects the fame when one hundred feer was measured off. The chains were compared as in the former experiments, but to read off the difference between the chain and the brals measure, one of the microscopes (B) with its nucremeter was made use of, and the scale with its bed was placed in the lame manner as when the 21 feet were measured off. The microscope was then placed on the wood and the scale moved until the finall divisions at its commencement were brought under the microscope, the adjusting feet of the tripod being moved if necessary, and diffinit vision obtained. These divisions are each zoth of an inch; that is, shalt an inch is divided into ten parts. The microscope was then brought over the first of these parts, and the wires of the micrometer being placed at right angles to the longitudinal line on the feale, they were leparated and made to embrace one of these divisions, The micrometer head was then turned so as to bring the wires to a coincidence, and the revolutions of the head and the parts of a revolution were noted down. This was done to each of the ten divisions.

211d a mean taken, which gave 18 revolutions and 50 parts for the measure of 15th of an inch.

The microscope was then taken to the opposite side of the scale where every inch is divided into ten parts, and each of these being measured after the above manner, the whole gave a mean of 18 revolutions, 50 parts to 18th of an inch. Now each of these

revolu ions is 120 parts, so that by allowing 18 r. 50 p. to - 0.10000

We have 1 revolution or 120 parts - - 0,00545

This account of the process and arrangement being premifed the results of the experiments made on the 21st, 22d and 23d October were as sollows:

Ocr. 21st,—One hundred feet of brass measure was laid off from the scale in the temperature of C_5 , 1° and the standard chain was applied at the same temperature, when the excess of the chain

	FEET
So that the length of the chain is now	100,01589
Oct. 22d.—The brass measure was made at the temperature of 65°, but the chain was compared at the temperature.	e
of 67°, and exceeded by 24,4666 r. or	0,13285
But 2°×,00742 inches or ,01484, in which the chain had	
lengthened fince the brass measure was laid off	0,01484
The difference of which is the excess of the chain at the	INCHES.
temperature of 65° or	- ,118or.
To which add 15° x,00495 inches, or	- ,074225
Their sum will be what the chain has lengthened, or	,19226
	FEET.
Hence the length of the chain is	100,01602
Ocr. 23d.—The brass measure was laid off, when the temperature was 65.1° and the chain was compared when the temperature was 65.7°, and then exceeded the 100 feet by	y.
20,89166 r. or	0.11344
From which deduct 0.6° x,00742 inches, or -	0,00445
The difference is the excess at the temperature 65,10	0,10899
To which add 15°.1 x,00495 inches, or	0,07474
The sum is what the chain had lengthened -	c,18373
And the length of the chain is	100.01531
Hence we have the length of the standard chain as follows	s :
By comparison, 21st, at 65,10 temperature	
22d, at 1, 0	,01602
23d, at 65,1°	. ,01531
	100,01574

And this may be called the measure at the temperate 50.0	
Now to have the excess of the old chain above the itandard one by these experiments, it was observed that on the 21st,	
the flandard chain exceeded the brass measure by	0,11598
And the meafuring one by	0,32797
The difference is therefore the excess of the measuring	, ,
flandard chain	0,21109
On the 23d, the standard chain exceeded the brass measure	•
at the temperature 65 7° -	0,11344
And the measuring chain exceeded at the temperature of	·
66.25° by	0,32701
Difference is the excess of the measuring chain above the	
flandard one	0,21357
From which deduct o°,55+,00742, or	0,00408
The difference will be the excess at 65°,7 temperature	0,20949
Excess on the 21st	0,21109
Mean of these two in inches	0,21074
Alabored we	

In making these allowances for the change of temperature after the brass measure was laid off, it is presumed, that in so short a time the brick wall, which was shaded by the tents, could not have suffered any change, especially as the alteration in temperature was so trisling.

FROM comparing what the chain had lengthened by these last experiments, with what it had lengthened by those made at Bellary, it appears that in that interval of time, or nineteen months, it had increased 0,04608 inches, or 00,384 seet, so that if we suppose the increase to be regular, it would have encreased from before the measurement at

Gooty, to the time of the experiments at Bellary, which was 24 months at the above rate 0,0048 feet, which deducted from 100,0119 feet, the length by the experiments at Bellary, we shall have the difference equal 20071 feet, and therefore 100,0071 feet for the length of the standard chain previous to the measurement near Gooty, to which add ,01218 feet, which was the excess of the measuring chain above the other at that time, the length of the measuring chain was then 100,10928 feet, and that multiplied by 326, the number of chains measured, will give 32606,2853 feet, for the apparent length of the base. But this is suppoling the increase in the length of the standard chain to be uniform which cannot have been the case, because, 1574 feet the excess of the ständard chain above the brass measure in 1815, divided by 13, the number of years it has been in my possession, will only give ,0012 feet for each year, which is only half of what is deduced from the above rate, of ,0048 feet for two years. It is therefore more probable that for some years after the chain was in this country, it had remained unchanged, and that when the rust began to operate, it had lengthened rapidly, but where to mark the commencement it is impossible to fay, unless we date it about the time when the irregularity was noticed in the comparative lengths, that is in the interval between the conclusion of the base near Pallamcottah, and the commencement of that near Gooty, and in order to make a correction, the most probable means will be to suppose that the standard chain had lengthened those divisions which appeared to be defective in the excess of the measuring chain when the comparison was made, previous to the measurement near Goody, viz. 8,63 divisions. Now 8,63 divisions is equal to,00345 feet, therefore if we suppose this to be the only lengthening from the rust, and that the measuring chain had lengthened from afe only, we must in that case call the standard chain 100,00345 feet, and this at the temperature of

50°, because the quantity ,00345 feet could not be sensibly affected by any change of temperature. Then if to the above be added the excess of the measuring chain above the other, that is ,01218 feet, and the whole multiplied by 326, we shall have the apparent length of the base in this case 32605,0954 feet, which is most probably nearer the truth than the former allowance which gives the apparent length 32606,2853 feet, for if this be made use of, with its corrections, to compute back to the base near Bangalore, it would bring out that base upwards of two seet more than it measured, which would indicate that there must have been an excess in the standard chain, above 100 feet, as far back as 1804, which is not probable, if it has been correctly laid off in London.

	FEEZ
fideration	•
ar Gooty	32605.095 3
_	+0,3 87 9
zontal dil	•
•	-04368
• -	32605,0454
the stan	ļ• ;
•	+5.4429
~	32610,4893
•	32608,6446
	zontal did

TRIANGLES depending on the Base near Gooty, and carried northerly to the distance between Darroor station and Inpalgutt station.

2. ANGLES.

At the North end of the Base (near Gooty.)

BETWEEN	AND		. 4	_	
	BaseGooty-droog station	87	27	16".5] 24.5: 20.5 17 15, 16.5 14, 13.5	16.4.
	Boglemauricondab,	105	; 36	22.5] 22 27 20.5]	25.25
	Paumdy flation	3.5	i 4	7 4 3 0 5 1.5	2.45
Boglemauricondah	•*			20.5 21.5 22 29.5 30	24 22
Bouth end of the B	South end of the Base	1 05 35	36 4	25.25 2.45	

· ON	THE MARKET	···		2
At the Nort	h end of the Bafe (con	tinue	d.)	
BETWEEN Paumdy hill,	glemáuricon dah,	70	32.22,8	
Boglemanricondah, Bol	eecondah,	51	14 24.33	
Boleecondah, Par	umdy flation,	., 121	46 47-13	
At the Sou	th end of the Base near	Goo	ty.	
ars a land the	01			,

	•	-	
North end of the base	Gootydroog	7 13	59 67.5 69. 4 70.6 58.5 64.5 65.5 64.5 55.5 56.5 58.5
	Páumdy hill,. 10	5 8	9 5 4: 5.5 2.5 6.43 9 8.5
Päumdý hiNg	Boglemauricondah 64	34	37 34 34 51 49.5 51 49.5
North end of the bafe	Paumdy hill	34	6.43 43.64

At Gooty Station.

BETWEEN North end of the base ,,	AND , South end of the base ,,,, ,,,,,	6 5 18	35.5 44.5 47.0 47 47 29 39 38 33 42
Paumdy	"Guddacul station	57 \$	57 69 52.5} 56 17
Guddacul	Koclacondah 7	7 47	72.5 64 58.5 74 58
North end of the base	, Namthabad	2 31	59 5 57 57.5 60 58.5
Paumdy flation	South end of the base 21	16	82 75 87 36.5 } 32.65 29.5]
South end of the base	North end of the base65	18	41.19
North end of the base	Namthabad	31	58.5
Namehahad	South and of the back		6-
South end of the bale	Paumdy hill	16	32.65
Paumdy	Namthabad 46	34	7.04

At Boglemauricondah,

North end of the base	South end of the bale	33	53	18.5 8.5 38.5 14.5 14.5
`				13 J
North end of the base	Boleecondah 133319333	72		5.5 5.5 6 7.81 6 7.5 11.5
	₹aumdy hi¥	65	1.	33 32.5 35 34.5 34.5

At Paumdy hill.

North end of the bale South end of the base	· 89	51	54.0 [50 5 50 > 52.81
South end of the base Gooty flation	\$6		15 14.5 18 19 18.5 17.60 18.5 17.60

At Paumdy (continued.)

56.50				
BETWEEN Gooty station 1000 0000	AND Boglementicondab.	57	52	39 1 46 42 5 44 42 5 41-5
	Boleecondah	40	44	~
	Namthabad flation	13	5 5	28.14 28.14 30.14 28.65 28.69 28.14
	. Guddacul station	88	42	29 27 5 27 0 27 5 27 5 28 5 30 5 35 35 37
N. end of the base			52	52.21
S. end for the bale	Gooty station	20	± 6	17.56
Gooty station	N. end of the base	13	26	34.65
	Boglemauricondah	57	5 2	42 5
4 " ,	N. end of the base		26	7.85
1 1 1	Gooty Station		44	11.36
Gody flation	N. end of the base -	13	26	34.65

1

At Paumdy (continued)

_	_	_	727		v	
В	E	T	W	•	14	

AND

N, end of the base	Boleecondah	27	17	36.71
Guddacul station	Gooty station	88	42	30. 5
Gooty flation	Boleecondah -	40	44	11.36
Boleecondah	Guddacul station	47	58	19.14

At Boleecondah.

N. end of the base	Boglemauricondah	55 50 24.5 24 27 25.4 29.5 > 29.28 30 27 38.5 38.5
Boglemauricondah	Paumdy hill	24 54 48.5 53.5 48.5 55.5 53.5 53.5 53.5 53.5 53.5 53.5
Paumdy hill.	Guddacul station	94 43 54.5 53.5 58. 57. 54.5 56.5
Guddacul station	Koelacondah	134 16 5.5 4 0 12.5 10

MEASUREMENT OF AN ARC At Boleecondah (continued.)

 TW	¥	r	N

BETWEEN	AND	
North end of the base	Boglemauricondah	55 50 29.28
Boglemauricondah .	Paumdy hill	24 54 53-25
Paumdy station	North end of the base	30 55 36.03
	At Guddacul station.	
Paumdy hill	Gooty flation	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Gooty station	. Koelacondah	30 12 35 5 34 55 47.5 54 54.5 39 45.5
Boleecondah	Koelacondah	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Koelacondah	Arrakerrabetta	70 40 28.5 29.5 35.5 40 33.37
Paumdy hill		24 14 36.17
Gooty station	Koelacondah	30 12 45.63
Koelacondah	Paumdy hill	54 27 21.80

Boleecondah

.... Paumdy hill

Boleecondah

At Guddacul station (continued.)

				/
BETWEEN		AND		s .
Koclacondah		Arrakerrabetta	****	70 40 33-37
1		Gooty station	••.•	30 12 45.63
Gooty» station	••••	Arrakerrabetta	****	100 53 19.0
				•
		At Koelacons	lah.	
Boleecondah	****	Guddaculbetía .	••••	28 34 25.5 26 25.5 27 27 27
Guddacul`	***	Arrakerrabetta	••••	41 15 24 27.5 25.5 30 } 30.1 33.5 35 35.5
		Gootydroog statio	n _.	71 59 9.5 8 8.5 9 7.5 7.5 7.5 18 17
Arrakerrabettæ		Adonidroog .	****	33 10 38.5] 36 42 38.5 39.14 42.5 40.5

At Koelacondah (continued.)

BEIWEEN	AND	
Adonidroog	Poelycondah	40 27 42 45 44.5 47 39 36 34.5
Gootydroog	Guddacul station	36. J 71 59 11.15
Guddacul	Arrakerrabetta	41 15 30.14
Arrakerrabetta	Gootydroog	113 14 41.29
Arraketrabetta	Adonidroog	33 10 39.14
Adonidroog	Poolycondah	40 27 40.5
Pooly condah	Arrakerrabetta	73 38 19.64
Guddacul	At Arrakerrabetta. Koelacondah Gootydroog	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Koelacondah	Poolycondah	46 52 53 58.5 63 49.5 > 53 07 50 51 46.5] 20 49 24.5 27.5 42.5 > 35.4

At Arrakerrabetta (continued)

		•			
BRTWBRN . Poolycondah	AND Gootydroog	••	42 0	36 49 5 49 43 5 37 5	48 #
	Adonidroog		61 16	21. 21. 22.5 24.5 17.5	s9 7 5
Guddaeul Koelacondala	Koelacondah Poolycondah	68 20	•	59 75 35 4	
Poolycondala Guddacul	Guddacuł Gootydroo g .	46	53 52	35·15. 53 °7	
Gooty droog.	Poolycondah Ditto (oblet ved d ire€	42 1) 42	0	42.08 43 10	
	Me	can 42	. 0.	42.59	

	- VIII COMETM	- 3.5 F
		8.5 3.5 5 6.5
Knelarondeh	Gooty droog	28 7
		29
		29 } 23.67
		-/ 1
		24
Ariakeriahetta	Adonidroog	18 19 19.5 71 · · ·

Koelacondah.

Arr kerraherta.

At Malliabad hill (continued.)

At	Mainabaa niil (continue	a. ₎
Retween Retta Beliagul	ANDDarroor bill	62 16 16 7 21.5 25 8 23 22.5 > 20 47 19 7 18 5 20.5 23 5
Dargoer hill	Kotapilly hill	67 52 24.2] 27 3 14 7 28 3 25 3 } 21 5 19 5 27 30 29 2
	At Darroor hil.	
	Malliabad	8 18 6.5 0.7 11.8 25.4 13.9
Malliabad hill	Kotapilly hill.	59 31 59] 60.3 71.6

67.5 J

3. PRINCIPAL TRIANGLES.

N. end of the base from the S. end of the base 32608.64 feet.

TRIANGLES.	Observed	Jeal	98	Angles for	Distances
THE HOLES.	Angles.	iğ Secu	Karess. Eri	Calculation.	in Feet.
N. and of the base,	87 27 16.45 27 14 2.64 65 18 41.19	-0.07 -0.03 -0.03	•	87 27 16.3 27 14 2.6 65 18 41.1	
	180 00 00.28	0.	13 _+0.15	180 00 00 0	
Good	ydroog station fr	om S. end	of the has	e, >-	16423.9 35853.8
N. and of the base,	105. 36 96.25 40 28 22.79 33 55 12. 5	-0 19 -0.04 -0.05		105 35 25 • 40.48 22 7 33 55 12.3	
Bog	emauricoudah fre				37 92 9.3 56280.2
N. end of the base, S. end of the base, Paumdy hill,	35 4 2.45 105 3 6.43. 39 52 52.21 180 00 1.09	-0.15 -0.04		35: 4 24 105 3 61 39 52 81.5	
	Paumdy hill from		•		49111.3 20218.8
N. end of the	base from Bogis	emauriconda	h 37929.3	. Net.	

	Boleecoudah from SN. end of the ba	186, . 4 56, . 3	3814.B 35742.4
	180 00 00.82 0.31 +0.51	180 00 00.0	
Buleecondah,	55 50 29.28 -0 10 1	85 50 29.0	
Boglemanricondah,	72 55 7.21c -0.12 y	51 14 24.1 72 55 6 9. 55 50 29.0	
N. end of the base,	51 14·24.330.09 72 55 7.210.12	51 14 24.1	

	N, end of th	base from Boglemauricondah 37.020.3 feet.	
Numbers.	TRIANG LES.	Angles. Districted Calculat	1
5	N. end of the hase,	0 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	10 6
		180 00 1.90 0.42 + 1.48 180 00 0 Paumdy hill from Some Beglemauricoudals,	49110.8
•	N. end	of the base from Boleecondah=438148	
8	N. end of the base, Boleecoudah, Paumdy hill,	30 55 36 03 +0.02 30 55 3 27 17 36.71:	0
	Gooty VIa	ion from the S. and of the base=36853.8	
	ماجة معطب معيم يايا م	Namthabad station from Society station,	0.0
) E.GERTO Good	y station from Paumdy hil = 59571.6	
8	Gooty station,	46 34 7.06 40 06 46.34 13.55 5 119.30 6	18.6
•		Namthabad station from Sopoty station,	16472 1 49708 i

N., end of the hear from Paumdy bill 49 110.8 feet.

TRIANGLES.	Observed Angles.	8	Excess.	ā 1	Angles for	Distances
		ľ	5		0	
V. end of the base, . Paumdy hill, Bolecomdah,	121 48 47,18 27 17 \$6,71 30 55 36,03				121 46 46.7 27 17 37.2 30 55 36.1	.;
	179, 59 59 92		0 43 -	0.51	180 0 0.	
	Bolescondah Lec	m {N.	end of t	he bas l,	1e, . . • ·	438J8 2 81231.8
Bojer	gondah Kom Paun	ndy/hill:	8 1228	75.		
Bolecondsh Paumdy hill, to Guddacul bill,.	94 43 55.67 47 58 19.14 37 17 50.8	-1.04 -0.43 -0.44			94 43 53.5 147 58 17. 137 17 49.3	
	180,0 561		1.91 4	3 70	180 0 0.	
	Guddaeul fro	m {Bol	esconds mdy hit	h, . J,		99575.5
Pau	mily hill from Gu	ddacu)=	=13359!	5 5.		
Paumdy hill, a same and a same and a same and a same a sam	88 42 30.5 24 14 36.17 67 2 56.17	-0 10 -0.18 -0.91			88 42 29.5 24 14 35 5 67 2 55.	en Kyd kpari
	1,80 0 2.84		1.89	0 95	180 0 0.	
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Gactydrops (rom P	,	t		59571.5 145043.8
Gudda	ul station from G	ootydro	og=14	5043,1	3.	
Guddacul,,	30 12 45.63 77 48 5.4 71 59 31 15	-0.89	الم م		30 12 45. 77 48 4.5	<i>,</i>
	180 <u>, 0 2.18</u>				150 0 0.	1
#.01	ilacoridale stațion i	trom {	Gudd ac u J oo'ly dro	i, oog,		149078.1 76749.3

i	Guddac	al station from Bo	leesonde	h==01	575.5 f	ee'.	
Namber.	TRIANGLES	Observed Angles	Difference.	Spherical Excess.	Brror.	Angles for Calculation.	Distances in Fest.
	Guddacul, Boleecondah, Koelacondah	37 9 31. 134 16 5.42 28 34 26.2	+0.22 -1.80 +0.55			17 9 30.4 134 16 3.6 28 31 26.0	i i si i
	in the second of	Koelacondah fro	m ≨God M {Bo.e	•		180 0 0.0	119082.0- 61419.2
	Gut	dicul from Koela	condal.=	1490	79.05.		
	Tuddaeul, Koclacondah, Agrakerrahetta,		-1 29 -1.00 -1.25	"	-0.28	70 40 32.2 41 15 29 2 68 3 54.6	
, ,	A. C.	Arrakerrabetta fro	om {Ko	ddacu elacon	dah,		105981.9
	Go	ory station from C	Guddacu!	=145	046.6		·,
	Gooty station,	100 53 19.7 46 52 53.07	-2,22 -0 64	, ,		32 13 50 8 100 53 16.8 46 62 52 4	
	**************************************	Augustanushutt	i Com	Goo	y station	180 0 0	195133 7
1	Breez - Jun Sagaran Harris et al. Communication of the communication of	ATTAL OFFICE		Arra	kerrabet	18,	105978 6
. ,	Koel	scondan from Arr	akerrab	iir=	151657.	5	
1	Koelacondah,	73 38 10.64 20 49 35.4 85 32 6 67	-0.87 -0.48 -0.84	*		73 38 19 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
		180 0 17.1	7.2		Y	180 0 0	
1	**	Rooly sondah' f	rom } H	oblaco	aidely		54084 1-

,	Arrakeres	bette from Gootydrong 195183.7 Teet.	
"ALLON DELLO"	TRIANGLES.		gies for Distances in Feet.
-	Arrakerrabetta, passessionis Gnotydroog, mad santabosioni Poolycondah, accompanionis	48	9 41.4 24 50.5 34 28.1
		Zoolycondish from Areakerrahetta, Gootydroog	0 0.0 145956.4 1306027
-	Arraker	ahetta Irom Poolycondale 45957/65	
8	Arrakerrahetta,	28 19 47 -0 76 38 80 24 37.64 -1 18 80	16 19. 19 4.5 24 36.5
_		Adonidroog from & Arrakerrshetta, Poulycondah,	D1770.0
_	Pholy	ondah from Admidrong=129805;9	
9	Poolycondsh	.52 37 46 89 -1×15 1×1	37 16 3 37 45.3 45.58.4
		Kerra Bellagul from Poolycondah,	0 0.0 127920 t 154429.5
	Adoni	irong from Kerra Bellagul=154429.6	
3(Adonidraog		45 53 6 12 50 6 1 1 15 8
	}	Mailiabad from SAdonidroog	

Kerrae Beliagut from Matiahad = 1 60201.7 feet:

TRIANGLES.	Vallete Since Service State of Service	Angles for Calculation.	Distances in Feet.
Kerrae Bellagui, Jaliabad, Darroor hill,	41 35 3443 —131 62 16 20.47 —1.26 76 8 93 —1.56	41-85-88.94 4-62-16-194- 4-76-87.7	
	180 0 4.2 3 93	+0.27 180 0 0	
*	Darroor hill from {Ketrae	<u></u>	150701.3; 113018.2
Ma	illiabad from Darroor hill=113	018.2	
Malliabad, , ,	67 52 25; -1.10 59 32 0.64 -1.00 52 35 40.06 -0.94	67 54 23. 59 31 58.8 54 38 38.2	
, , ,	180 0 5 70 3.04	+2.66 180 0 0.	
	Ketapilly hill from Malliabs	ad, hill,.	122632 1 131799 1
Dar	roor hill from Kotspilly hill=1:	31799.L ₁	
Darroor hill, Kotapilly hill, 23 (upahguts,	46 37 10 28 -1.07 84 48 40.7 -1.84 42 32 13.04 -1.08	. 46 .39 9 2 . 84 48 38.8 . 48 .32 .12.	
	80 0 4.09 3 99	1 +0 03 180 0 0.	
	Impahguit from {Darron	or hill, illy hill, .	175156.7 127899:0

4: DESCRIPTION OF THE GREAT STATIONS of

Base.—North end; in the flat cotton ground about three miles west of Gooty, and near the village of Namthabad.—It is situated on a rising ground, marked by a circular platform of brick and chunam with a stone and circle, the center of which ascertains the extremity of the base.

South end.—Lies nearly a mile north of the village of Eeranapully, and is similarly marked with the former one.—Under the masonry of both these platforms, the extremities of the base are also defined by stones with circles fixed when the foundation was laid, and corresponding with those above.

Gootydroog.—On the highest point of that Droog; while observing, the slag staff was removed. It was afterwards; replaced and marks the station.

Boglemauricondah.—A conspicuous hill on the range lying about tensemiles west from Gooty.—The road to the summit is on the south side of the hill, leading from Nagfundrum, a considerable village about two miles south from the hill.—The station is on the summit marked by an platform and a stone with a circle.

Paumdy hill.—A long hill running nearly east and west, and about two miles north of the village of Paumdy and the Penna river.—The station is on a platform, and the center marked as usual.

from Gooty, and north of the village of Pothakacherroo, about one and half miles distant. The great road from Gooty to Bellary running between

the hill and the village.—The flation is marked on a rock by a circle.

Guddaeul Pagoda.—On the platform of the pagoda marked as usual. The village and hill are well known, being about half the distance between Gooty and Echary.

Koelacondah — This hill is about 14 miles north from Gooty in the Chinumpully talook, and two miles from the village of that name. — On the summit of a large detached stone marked as usual, is the station.

Arrakerrabetta.—The station is on a range of hills North East of Goolesm, and about three miles west from Auleor.—Arrakerra, a considerable willage, from which the station derives its name is not far south. The station is marked by a stone and circle in the center of a platform.

Poolycondan.—In the Davuncondan talook about four miles fouth from Davuncondan. The hill takes its name from a small village situated on a height about two miles N. W. of the hill —The station is marked by a high platform, stone, &c.

Adonidroog.—This place is too well known to need any description farther than that the station is on a stone building on the highest part of the Droog, marked.

of Kerrae Bellagul,—A low hill about shalf a mile cast from the village of Kerrae Bellagul, and about seven miles south from the Toongabudra. The station is marked on a rock by a circle.

Malliabad.—In the territories of His Highness the Nizam, and the highest of a range of hills running south from Rachor, and about sive

miles distant. The great road from Bellary to Hydrabid runs about two miles east from the hill, and the village of Malliabad is about one mile north.—The station is marked on the rock by a circle.

Darroor hill.—This hill as also Malliabad is in the Dooab.—Darroor is a peaked hill about two and a half miles west from the village of that name, and about nine miles west from Guddawaul. The river Kistna runs about seven miles north from the hill:—The station is marked on a rock by a circle.

Kotapilly kill.—About fix miles north of the Kistna, and about ten miles S. W. from Muktul, having Gooda Belloor, a well known place between it and the Kistna; the village of Kootapilly is on the north side of the hill about half a mile distant.—The station is on a rock marked by a circle.

Inpahgutt.—The highest of a conspicuous range of hills lying between Ootkoor and Koilacondah Droog, and about four miles south of Kotacondah.—Trimallahpoor, a small village from which the road to the station leads, is about two miles north of the hill.—The station is on a rock marked by a circle.

Triangles depending on the base near Daumergidda, and carried southerly to the distance between Inpahgutt and Darroor hill.

5. MEASUREMENT OF THE BASE LINE NEAR DAU. MERGIDDA.

Experiments made for comparing the chains after the measurement.

1815.	old chain.	REMARKS.
1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1	Divisious,	and where I have the state of
February 15th, A. M.	45.2	
	A6.	
•	46.	
- 1	46.	
	45.	
P. M.	46. 46.6	Mean Temperature during these Experiments, was Af-
!	46.2	
	45.5	•
A. M.	45.5	•
. الله م	46.	,
	45.6	·
4	45.	
	45.5	
1	45.	
	45.	
Mean	45.63	

Note.-45.63 divisions of the micrometer is equal to ,01828 feet, and at Hydrabad, where the comparisons were made, the old thain exceeded the new one ,01756 feet; the difference, equal to ,0072 feet is the wear.

TABLE CONTAINING THE PARTICULARS OF THE

MEASUREMENT.

No. of the Hypothenuse.	of each Feet.	A	ngle		Seductions from sech.	Perpen	dicular.	Commein from,	cement. he last.	Mean emperature.	REMARKS.
Hypot	Length	Eievs,	end	Depa	Deductions usch. Hypothenu	Ascents.	Descenti	Abové	Below.	Temp	
			•	299	Feet.	Feet.	Feef.	Inches.	Inches.		
11	300	٥	51	48	.03405	4.52	}	27.0		74.	Commenced on the
2	300	ŏ		133	.00093	2.02	0.75	21.0		85.5	
3	300	.0	38	12	401851 H		3.33	ر ا	5. 2.5	95.3	23d January, 1814
4	730	0	.26	18	.02051		8.36		12.5	88.	
1 6	600	,o	37	57	.03654	;	6.62	: ' <	12.0	74.	1
1 6	500	0	42	0	03730 ±		6.11	٠,	127	02.	
7	500	٠0	50	0	.05990		7.27	j	112	91.3	1
8	500	1	2	- 51	108355		9.14	¥	8.6	66.7	ł
9 }	400	0	32	24	(01776)	٠. ا	3.77	12.5		75.7	
10	400	٠,0	46	48	.03708	- :	5.45		21.	77.3	
11	600	0	36	53	.03450		6.44	. 23	41.5	94.5	1
12	600	-0	16	5.7	.00726 ···		2.96	11.5		69.3	1
13	600	Le	vel					18 (0)	1.	91.8	
14	200	1	24	21	.06020	4.0.		4	1	79.9	
15	600	0	34	45	103066	6.00		, ,	-2.	70:9	
16	600	.0	11	0	.00306	1.02		19	.7.8	95.3	
17	800	0	17	57	501088		4.18	19	4.4	88.	1
18	700	.0	36	54	.04032		7.51	l.	2.	726	
19	800	0	51	15	.08888		11.98		15.8	03.1	
20	400	0	26 16	6 42	.01152		3.04	, ,		102.8	1
21	300	0	21	57	.00854		1.46		.9.	61.6	
22	700	.0	-6	14	.01428	4.47	* 04	22.4		71.4	
23	.600	0	6	18	00096	1 5 1	1 09.	to the things	8.	96.9	•
24	400	.0	7	12	.00068		0.73		13.5	102.7	1
25	300	.0	50	3	.00066	0.63	4004	11.8		65.	
26	800	9	52	51	.50552		48.74	42	0.2	87.2	
27	400 300	1	24	33	.09073	٠.	7.38	12.5		101.2	
28	500	.6	9	39	.00284		1.68	6.3			
30	700	.0	45	31	.06139	9,27	1.00	5.6		77.5	•
	500	0	5	24	.00139	7.7/	0.79	0.0	0.7	101.1	10
31	300	Ö	45	53	.02678	- 1	4.0		9.7		
32	400	ŏ	35	25	.02122	' 1	4 12	""	<u>8.6</u>	87.7	
33	200	ő	Õ	18	.04122		0.02	7.3	13.0	100.9	
1 34	200						.0,06 "	1.0		100.9	

9 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	100 1 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 1	from the fermination	~	30800	
20.5 12.5 12.5 1.7 100.5 11.7 100.5 11.7 104.7	3.64 16.88 16.88 16.88 16.88	the terminati			<u>ن</u> ا
9.5 11.7 104.7	2000	00201	Descent from	Đ	
9.5 11.7 104.7	7000		0 12 53	300	63
19.55 100.5 19.55 100.5 19.55 100.5	1000	35104	.	800	à
20.5		50106	2000	300	00
20.5	,,	07752	4	400	50
8.5	18:0	23032		800	200
	40.1	.16500			0
9,7	10.1	.01028	200	700	55
03		07406		400	54
,			20	700	53
_	4.07	00000	13	800 0	52
· ·	3.08	2000		400	5.
14.8		.01200	20 04	700 0	o c
*	4.20	01905		500 0	40
12.7	\$	01600		300 0	8
_	5.1	2000		400	47
4	14.8	13/00	0.0	100	46
12.76	D (0)	.19387	•	300	A 4
17. 80.9		.02740		300	4
0.7 63.6		.01695	i.		4
	1.04	.00340	. 1	000	41
02.0	·-	29000			_
37 11.7	5.24	03428			
***	14.00	18666		600	
01	78.00	0200	5	300	_
11. 82.7			30 16	700	30
3	14.91	.070.0	11 30	2	_
4.9			,	•	
	1 4000	Feet.			_
Inches. Inches.				<u> </u>	1
					H
	Scen's Cescents	Hy	and Dep.	Elevs.	ngt
A Ballow	نيد	ŗ	•	le	rh. h
Me	The state of the s	acl	-		of
REMARKS.		1	Angles	<u> </u>	er.
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By the comparisons made at Hydrabad, the old chain with which the measurement was made, exceeded the new one .01756 feet, and the new or itandard chain exceeded the 200 feet by the brass standard .01574 feet. Then .01756 × .01574 = .03330 feet, for the excess of the old chain above 100 feet. Therefore 308 × 100.03330 feet will Feet. give the length of the Base. 308 10.2564

At the conclusion, the old chain exceeded the new one 45,63 divisions of the micrometer equal ,01828 feet, and had therefore increased by wear ,00072 ft. Hence 308+ ... ×0.1109

6. ANGLES.

'At the West end of the Base.

BETWEEN	AND	0	,	•	
Malliga hill	Daumergidda .	 82	38	48.5 46 55.5 44 44 44 44 44	• 46.57
East end of the Base	. Malligs	 75	38	38 37 36 26 36.5 32.5 32.5	32.13

'At the East end of the Base.

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West end of the Base ..... Malliga hill .... 75 39 23 22 29 29 29 29 23.5 22.6 22.5 26.5 26.5
```

At Malliga hill.

BETWEEN	ΨND	ō ; ;
West end of the Base	East end of the Bafe	28 46 69]] 68.5 65 59.5 69.5 70 } 65.1
	Daumergidda	60 70. 58]
Daumergidda	Doodallah	80.5 28.5 82.5 29.5
		23 85 34 > 29.67 29 27.5 22.5 23 33 81
Doodallah	Sheelapilly	74.20 55.5 59.5 55.5 68 59 > 57.65 58.5 57.56.5

At Daumergidda:

	•	
West end of the Base	AND	44 41 42 47·5 41 46 40·5 40·5
Malliga hill	Doodallah.	24 23.5 22 21 31 28.5 19.5 26.5 26.5
Doodallah	Sheelapiliy	59 20 47] 47 48 46 48 45 } 44.95 41 43 43.5 45 45

At Doodallah.

Daumergidda edd	Sheciapilly70	25	55·5 52 55·5
			54·5 53 } 55
			41 44,5
			54.

At Doodallah (continued.)

BETWEEN	AND	- 0	;	2 -
Maliga bill	beelapilly hill	828	35	
el L. Sile	Torrangist b	49	40	45.5 44.5 43 42.5 43.5 43.5 43.5 45 45 31
Sheelapilly				31 33 36 37 87 32 31 3. 35 31 36 28.5 29 29.5 26
Goraegait				45.5 50.5 51 46 51 49.5 48 51.5
7	Copecondah	***** ***** 31	23	21.5 21.5 24.1
Sheetapilly hill Goraegutt	Goraegutt Taud Munnoor			31.53 49.1
Sheelapilly hill .	Taud Munnoor	83	49	20.63
Daumergidda	. Malliga hill	28	35	43.50
Malliga hill	Daumergidda	41	50	8-11

At Sheelapilly.

BETWEEN Malliga hill	AND Doodallah	77	22: 26: 26: 25: 26: 25: 26: 22: 26: 27: 29:	5 5 25.72 -5
Daumergidda.	Doedalish.	,50	24 28 27 27 27	26 68 7 7 5 26 68 7.5
Doodallak	Goracgutt	••• 7		7 9.5 3.5 5 9.5 6.5 5 9.5 8.5 1.5
Coracquit	Kotamarpilly		49 · 59	25 27.5 26 32 5 > 28.86 31 27

18 5 26 5 J

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At Taud Munnoor!
                                              2 .....
BETWEEN,
                       AND
Goracgutt .... Sheelapilly .... F.....
                                             42 48 45.57
                                                   -54
                                                   51.5
                                                   48.5
                                                   53.5 (
                                                   54
                                                   54
                                                   55
                       Doodallah .... 106 19 16.5
                                                   18.5
                                                   16 5
                                                   115
                                                   135 >
                                                          15.gC
                                                   13
                                                   17
                                                   16.5 |
                                                   16.5
                                                   20.0
                        Topecondah .... 59 4 957
                                                    7.5
                                                   13
                                                   19 .
                                                   15
                                                   11.5
                                                   111
                                                    7.5
                                                    9
                                                    13
                                                    12
                                                    14
                                                    10
                       At Goraegutt.
                        Doodallah .... 63 30 29.57
Sheclapilly
                                                   2,1
                                                   24 5
                                                   $2.5
                                                   21.5
                                                   22.5
                                                   2 i
                                                       > 22.13
                                                   1
                                                   18 5
                                                   22
                                                   21.5
                                                   27 5
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44 O commenced & Chambingered &

	At Goraces	ett: (continued.)	¥			
BRIWEEN	INA			\$	99"	
•	Kotan	narpilly.	1.1	LL 15	26.5	
					20.5	
					25.5	
					15	12.4
					19	
					19 27.5	
					27	
2				2 0 00	22]	
dTau Munaoor	Tope	condan		5 55	21.5 } 22	
					21	
					27.5	
					24 5 21	
					31 }	23.25
					21.5	
					2 7.5	
					22	
					23	
an 4.4.	ves. Kot	amaroilly.	****	60	8 57 E	
Topecondah	70.00·	manne hand ,		,	55· 5	
					57 56.5	
					58	
					58]	
					565	57:09
					58 59	
					55	
					55 56	
					50 58 s i	
Taud Munnoor	Do	odallab		32	58 5 j 31 55]	
Tage Wigniser.					5 7·5	
					57·5	
					57 58	
					59·5 y	> 57283
					55 5 9	-,- •
					59·5	
					61 97.5	
					57.5 57.5	
					W 13	.1

48

At Goraegutt (continued.)

BETWEEN Taud Munnoor Taud Munnoor	AND Toperondah Doodallah	83 33 23.25 32 31 57.83
Doodallah	Topecondah	116 5 21,08
	At Kotamarpilly.	
Sheelapilly	Goraegutt	28 45 16.5
oncompany	001206	8
		14 ,, 13.5 12.1 10.5 14.5
		12]
Coracguit	Peecha Raggeddy	54.5 52.5 52.5 51.5 54.5 51.5 50.05 54.5 51.5 50.05
Sheelapilly	Peecha Rageddy	37.5 29.5 33.5 36 35.5 38
Peecha Raggeddy	Annantagherry	24.5 24.5 25.5 36.5 25.5 31.5. 29 28.5 39.5 35

At Kotamarpilly (continued.)

At Kotamarp	illy (continued.)	
Annantagherry Kotakoo	ND	37 3 45 45 31.5 37 32 40.5 35.5 34.5
Coraegutt Topeo	ondab ••••	76 25 5 5 2.5 3 5.5 6 7:5 3 4 6 6
Tepecondah Ann	antagherry	76 4 39 36.5 30 33.5 34.5 36 32.5 32 33.83 31.5 36 31 36 31 38.5 35
Reecha Raggeddy	Goraegutt Sheelapilly	65 26 50.05 38 45 12.10
Sheelspilly Dito	Peecha Raggeddy Ditto observed direct	26 41 37.95 26 41 35.0
Peecha Raggeddy. Annantagherry Annantagherry Kotakoddangul	Mean = Annantagherry Sheelapilly Kotakoddangul Sheelapilly	142 3 30 71 168 45 7.18 37 3 36.37

At Topecondah.

		A	Topeconde	ah.				
BETWEEN Annantagherry		1 0 8-6-	AND Kotamarpill	y ,	****	/ ¥3 3	4 53 5 T 46.5	
							52.5 53.5 52.5	
							50 56 5 49	
							54 51.5 54	52.9 4
							52 54 5 57 54	
							54 54·5 57 51	
Kotamarpilly	****	000d-	Goracguit		••••	34 .2	5 57 60.5 58.5 60.5	
							60.5 60.5 60	
							61 61 60.5	59·7 3 .
							59 59·5 61 62.5	
							57 56.5 61	
Coraeguit	4444		Doodallah	****		3º 3	1 18 ⁻ 17 15 5	
							19.5 15.5 >	17.33
							19.5 15.5	

At Topecondah (continued.)

	At There	Incardia (assertante		
Goraegutt ••	, 4188	AND Taud Munnoor		27 22 23 23.5 25 25 26.36 29 5 27.5 23 28.5 23
	'At I	Annantagherry:		
Purgy hill	****	Kotakoddangul		76 9 44 58 41.5 51 51.5 48 46.5 56.5 54.5 54 57 53.5 41.5
Kotakoddangul	a , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Thuttepilly hill	4840	69 27 39 35.5 86.5 29 27.5 84.5
Thuttapilly	#410 #410	Kotamarpilly	4444	46 12 48.5 64.5 54.5 64 5 60 60.5 60.5
Kotakoddangul Thuttapilly	**** *** ***	. Thuttapilly	****	69 27 33 67 46 12 59 0
Kotamarpilly	8811 884	. Kotakoddangul		115 40 32,67

At Purgy hill.

BBTWEEN	•	'AND	\$;	į
Pochâmagut	tabreta v v v e a a a v	Kotakoddangul	79 55°	6.5 1.5 1.5 1.5 17.5 17.5 9.5 11.4 11.4 11.4 11.4 11.4 11.4
Kotakoddangul	•14 2 •••••	Annantagherry	80 10	19.5 10 13.5 11 13 13 13 11.5 14.5 19.5.

At Kotakoddangul.

Inpahgutt,	, po e	****	Pochamaguit	**** 57	0 49 57 51 57.5 62 53.5 58.5 61.0
•				•	$ \begin{array}{c c} 54 \\ 56 \\ 57.5 \\ 56 \\ 57.5 \end{array} $ $ \begin{array}{c c} 56.20 \\ 57.5 \end{array} $ Mean = 56.195

At Kotakoddangul (continued.)

	At	Kotako	aaangui (co	761 171 160	usj			
BETWEEN Pockamaguit	gush	4065	AND Pargy hill	••••		8 9 47 5 [§]		 26.85
r	,						30.13 \\ 28.13 \\ 26.63 \\ 26.63 \\ Mean =	² 7·93 = ² 7·39
Purgy hill	***	,	Annantaghe	rey		23 1	59 59 59.5 54.5 59 59.5 59 54.5	56 8 7
Annantagher		••••	Thuttapilly	••••	****	48	58.0 43 37 37 24 5 26.5 26.5 23.5 14.0 25.5 28	> 27.3 [
Thuttapilly		****	Kotamarpil	ly		. 21	22 26.5 27 36 5 31.5 31.3 35.5 30.5	

At Kotakoddangul (continued.

	•	10 12010	in amount at le	OIBULIUM	700g			
BETWEEK Inpaliguet	••••	4448 1	AND Kaunkoortee	****	-		s 34 2]	
Annantagherry Thuttapilly	••••	••••	Thuttapilly Kotamarpilly	****	****	48 4 21 2	84·1 49·3 39·8 3 27·35 7 33·5	
Kotamarpilly	****	****	Annantagherry			27 1	5 53.85	
				de e ³		****	generapsiya islanda 1995 .	
	1	A	t Pochamagu	itt.				
Kotakoddangu	ا لور.	****	Purgy hill	****	****	52	6 26.7]' 24.8 25.5	
							26.2 27 24 5 23.5 25	
Inpahgutt .	••••	••••	Kotakoddangu	l		73 :	55.3 59.1 68.3 67.6 70.9	j
						-	,	
		` A	It Kaunkoori	tee.	. •			
Kundakoor	****	****	Inpahgutt	••••	****	88 1	57 5 56.2 55.7 55.7 52.7	,
Inpaligutt	****	****	Kotakoddangul	****	****	99	52 5 54 55:5] 44.27 50 5	
						i.	50 8 46 4 45.5 47 47 48 45 J	IÞ

At Kandakoor hill.

		14. Jun . 444	P. T. Children and A. C.				
	BBTWEEN		AND		•		;
	Kotapilly	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Inpahgutt		67	15 52.4	
	Worabin's	200				56.5 56	
,			•			56 61.8	,,
			•			52.7	55.18:
		To an But the		, , , , ,		55	
		* t * •••• • •	•			. 54 53 -	
	2.33	4	Kaunkoort	e hill	., 5	9 34 37.1	
	mplahgutt-	4000	Maunkoon	20 HH. 4044	0,00	41	
			, ,			37	1
				•		ვ0.ვ ვ1 . გ	35.86
						39	
				•	• •	35 3.6	ļ
	•	•		•		3.0	J .
			At Inpa	houtt.			
			Kandako		****	57 24 21.9	27
	Kotapilly	****	Kandako	Of mur ****	••••	21.	5 }
	•					14.	
						12. 18.	3 17.09
	-					20	7,.09
	•					14.	
						15.	2
						73 6 3·	
	Kandakoor	hill	Kotakod	dangul		73 6 3.	4
			•			. 6	6.77
		,	•	•	•	3	5
						9 10	j
	!!	1 *11	Kaunko	ortee hill-	***	32 3 28.	<i>7</i>
	* Kandakoor	r nui	. Transier			32	
			•		1. ,	34 30	8
		• •	1			. 33	3 > 30.7
	. •					33 26	2
	•						7
		•	Kanda	koor		73. 6	.5 Ĵ 6 77
	* Kotakodd		Kanda Kaunk	oortee	•	32 3 3	
	Karidakoo			oddangul		41 2 0	6.07
	Kaunkoor	rtee • • • • •	Dulak	Ammungur .	***		~

At Kotapilly:

BETWEEN			AND			ò	:	
Inpahgutt	****	****	Kandako or	••••	.9414	55	19	50 91

7. PRINCIPAL TRIANGLES.

TRIANGLES.	Angles.	Difference	Spherical Exerse.	Error.	Angles for Calculation.	Distances in Feet.
V. end of the base,	75 33 32.13 . 75 39 24.6 28 47 5.1	-0.16 -0.16 -0.1z	0.41	+1.39	75 33 31 5 75 39 23 5 28 47 5	
W. end of		(В. е	nd of	the base		61982.8 61955.6
V. and of the base,	82 38 46 57 26 15 29.41 71 5 43. 4	-0.18 -0.11 -0.13	0.42	1 04	82 38 45.5 26 15 29.5 71 5 44.0	<u>.</u>
	W. end of V. end of the base, V. end of the base,	V. end of the base,	V. end of the base,	V. end of the base,	V. end of the base,	V. end of the base,

I namer.	TRIANGLES.	Observed Angles.	Difference.	Spherical Fxcess.	Error.	Angles for Calculation.	Distances in Feet.
	Drume	rgidda from Ma	iga hil =	-64977	.8 fret.		•
١	Daumergidda,	78 20 25 95 59 49 29 67 41 50 8.11	-0.53 -0.33 -0.33			78 20 24 59 49 28.6 41 50 7 4	
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	180 0 3.73	<u> </u>	1.27	+2 46	180 0 0	_
		Doodallah	rom{D	aumerg ailiga l	idda, .		84217.9 95408 8
	Mal	liga bill from Do	odaliai <u>—</u>	95408	8 feet.		
	Malliga,	. 28.35 43.56	-0 2	7 1		74 20 54 28 35 42 3 77 3 23 7	
		180 (6.83		1 02	+5.81	180 0 0	1.
		Sheelapilly	from {1	Mailiga Duodali	h,		46854 7 94265.1
-	Doo	dalleh from Daun	ergidda:	_84217	7.9 feet		
			,	,			,
-	Doodallak,		-0.66 -0.58 -0.54		1 1 1	70 25 51. 59 20 42 9 50 34 26.1	
21	Daumergidda, r	59 20 44.91	-0.58 -0.54		+1.48	59 20 42 9	
21	Daumergidda, r	59 20 44.91 59 13 26.58 180 0 3.26	-0.58 -0.54	1.7.8		59 20 42 9 50 34 26,1	. 94266 9 103250.6
-	Daumergidda, r	59 20 44.91 59 13 26.58 180 0 3.26	-0.58 -0.64	1.7.8 ndallah umergio	, id 4,	59 20 42 9 50 34 26,1	. 94266 9 103250.6
	Daumergidda, r	59 20 44.91 50 13 26.68 180 0 3.26 Shelapilly for Doodallah from St. . 42 40 31.53 . 73 49 6 42	-0.58 -0.54	1.78 ndallah umergid	, id 4,	59 20 42 9 50 34 26,1	94266 9
	Daumergidda,	59 20 44.91 50 13 26.68 180 0 3.26 Shelapilly for Doodallah from St. . 42 40 31.53 . 73 49 6 42	-0.58 -0.54 -0.54 -0.50 -0.40 -0.50	1.78 odallah umergio	, id 4,	59 20 42 9 50 34 26.1 180 0 0. 142 40 31.3 73 49 6. 61 30 22.7	94266 9

TRIANGLES.	Observed Angles.	Differences. Solverical	Error.	Angles for Calculation.	Distances in Feet.
Doodallah, Sheelapilly, Taudmunnoor,		-0.56 -0.37	<u>'</u>	83 49 20.1 32 35 16.3 63 36 23 6	
		<u> </u>		180 O: 0].
	Täudmenuoc	e from {Dood	ialich, . apilly, .		56687.5 104640 1
SI	neelapilly from Tauc	dmunacor <u>i</u> l(04 640 4 1		,
Sheelapilly,	42 43 52. 1 96 2 20 02	0.26 0.65		41 13 49 42 43 51.7 96 2 19 3	
	1.		- [100 0 0	i
•	Goraegutt f	rom Sheelapi Taudmu	illy,	180 0 0	71400 5 69351.7
Sh	Goraegatt f			,	71400 5 69351.7
threlapilly,	reelapilly from Gore			,	71400 5 69351.7
threlapilly,	reelapilly from Gore	-0.11 -0.71 -0.08	1 feet.	29 59 27.5 111 15 20.5	71400 5 69351.7
heelspilly,	. 29 59 28 86 . 111'15 22.4	-0.11 -0.71 -0.08	1 feet. + 2 46	29 59 27.5 111 15 20.5 38 45 12 180 0 0	
sheelspilly,	29 59 28 86 111'15 22.4' 38 45 12.1'	-0.11 -0.71 -0.08 0 90	+ 2 46	29 59 27.5 111 15 20.5 38 45 12	
oheelspilly,	29 59 28 86 111 15 22.4 38 45 12.1 180 0 3.36 Kotamarpilly from Gordallah from G	-0.11 -0.71 -0.08 0 90	+ 2 45	29 59 27.5 111 15 20.5 38 45 12	
Sheelspilly,	29 59 28 86 111 15 22.4 38 45 12.1 180 0 3.36 Kotamarpilly from Gordallah from G	-0.11 -0.71 -0.08 0 90 om {Sheelapii Goraegui	+ 2 46	29 59 27.5 111 15 20.5 38 45 12 180 0 0	

Numbers.	TRIANGLES.	Objected	Difference.	Spherical Excess.	Error.	Angles for Calculation.	Distances in Feet.
1	Doodallah,	41 '8 49 1 32 31 57 83 105 19 15.96	-0 12 -0.15 -0.68			41 8 48. 32 31 57. 106 19 15.	,
		Taudmunnoor.	·			180 0 0.	56A83. 69353.5
	∠Gort	negutt from Tau	dmuunoo	≈693 5	3.5		
	Goraegutt,	83 33 23 25 69 4 11 7 37 22 46.36	0.43	1.60	0 29	83 33 44 6 59 4 11.4 37 42 25 0	an dra
		"Toperouda	h from {	Gornege Paudmu	nt,		98' 04.9 113530.4
		"Topecouds eguit from Tope					98' 04.9 113530.4
		69 8 57.09 34 25 59.77 76 25 4.87	-0 42 -0.34 -0.48	-98003.	8 feet	69 8 56.6 34 25 59 76 25 4 4	98' 04.9 113530.4
	Goraeguit,	69 8 57.09 34 25 59.77 76 25 4.87	-0 42 -0.34 -0.48	-98003.	8 fcet	69 8 56.6 34 25 59	113530.4
	Goraegutt, Topecoudah,	69 8 57.09 34 25 59.77 76 25 4.87	-0.42 -0.34 -0.48	1 24 -	8 feet	69 8 56.6 34 25 59 76 25 4 1	113530.4
36	Goraegutt, Topecoudah,	69 8 57.09 34 25 59.77 76 25 4.87 180 0 1.73	-0.42 -0.34 -0.48 	1 24 -	8 feet	69 8 56.6 34 25 59 76 25 4 4 180 0 0	113530.4

Kotamarpilly from Topecond-h 91230. Scher.

TRIANGLES.		Diffe. Spherica Except.	Angles for Angles for Calculation,	Distances :
Kotamarpilly,	5 4 33.63 3 34 52.62	-0:05 -0.46		1
		ţ., į.,	180 0 0.	
	Annanteghe	rest from Tope	marpilly,	74745.4° 105237.8
Kutama	rnilly from Anna	ntagharry == 7 47,	15.4 feet.	
Kotamarid'lr, Annantagherry,. 39 Kotakoddengul,	37 · 3 · 36 37 115 40 32 67 27 ·15 53 85	-0 03 -1.41 -0 13	37 3 35 7 115 40 30 9 27 15 53 4	
	180 0 2.89	1.57 _	1 32 180 0 0	
	Kotakoddang	ul from {Kotam Asnan	arplily, tagherry,	(4705% 6 98329 9
Koramara	illy from Kataki	oddangu" <u>—</u> 14701	32.6 fee'.	
Kotamarpilly, Kotakod langui, 4 theelapilly,	131 41 30.81	4.23	131 41 26 6 20 1 41.6 28 16 51.8	
	į	. 1	.180° .00	
	Sheetapilly from	Kotamarpilly,	74444	106296 55

In order to obtain the distance from Sheelapilly to Kotakoddangul, for the purpose of reducing the terrestrial arc, being more conveniently situated with respect to the meridian of Dolagoontah; the internal chord angle at Kotamarpilly with the included sides Sheelapilly from Kotamarpilly; and Kotamarpilly from Kotakoddangul have been used. Hence (as in the above triangle,) the side Sheelapilly to Kotakoddangul dangues ± 231767.9 seet, and the angles at Sheelapilly and Kotakoddangul corrected as observed angles will be 28 16 50.8, and 20 1 41.1.

Annautag	barry from Kotsk	oddeneal)	_98	329.9 1	ect.	
TRIANGLES.	Observed Angles.	Differences.	Spherical Excess.	Error.	Angles for Calculation.	Distances in Feet.
Annantacherry, Kotakeddangul. Purgy hill,	76 9 50.58 23 39 56.87 80 10 13.94	-0.32 -0.23 -0.36			76 9 50 23 39 56 5 80 10 13 5	
	Purgy hill fea				1FO O O	40057 6 96899 2
Kotak	odd=ngul from Pu	orgy bi⊓=	-9 6 89	99.2 fee	t.	
Kotakoddangul,	47 58 27.39 79 55 11 41 52 6 25 4	-0.59 - 0.88 -0.60		Y	47 58 25 1 79 55 9 8 52 6 25 1	
		t from {	Kot <i>i</i> Parg	koddang y hill,	tRO 0 0.	190892 9 91212 2
Kotab	addangul from Po	ochamagn	"= ¹	20892.1	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Kotakoddangul,	57 0 56 2 73 57 5.5	-1.16 -1:44			57 0 55. 73 57 4. 49 2 1.	
	Inpahgut	t from {	Kota) Pochi	koddang magutt,	(al,	153863 3
Kota	koddangul (com l	Inpahgut	=15	3863.5		
Kotakeddangul, Inpahgutt,	.39 2 39 4 41 2 35 07 99 54 47.12	- 0.47 -0.46 -1.43		*	80 2 39, 41 2 35 5 90 54 45,5	
	Kaunkoortee				180 0 0	102562 98390.2

Kaunkooree from Inpahgut = 98390 2 feet.

TRIANGLES:	Observed	5	Angles for	Distances
I RIANGLES.	, Angles,	ර මේ ⁽ ගුසු	Circulation.	in,Feet.
Kunnkoortee,	88 21 55 7	-0.68	88 21 54.7	
Inpahgutt,	32 3 30.7	-0.36	32, 3 30.1	
45 Kandakoor hill,	59 34 35.86	-0.37	59 34 35.2	
	180 0 226	1.41 +0	0.85 180 0 0	
	Kandakoor fro	m { Kannkoortee Inpahgutt, .	3	60563 114054.9
Inpa	ngött from Kand	akoor==11 1054.9	feet.	
Inpahgutt	57 24 17 (0.04	57 24 16.	
Kandakoor,	87 15 55.		67 .15 54.	
46 Kotapi ly,	55 19 51 S		55 19 50.	
10,120,401,193	00 10 01 5			
	180 01 31	8 2 92	+096/180 0 0.	
	Kotapilly f	rom {Inpahgutt,	·•• •	127903.5 116835.0
i es	ahgutt from Kota	pilly =127902 5	lert.	
In ah utt	48 32 13 0	↓ −1.08	48 32 12	
Kotapilly hill,	84 48 40.7	-1.84	84 48 38 8	
17 Da roor hill, .	46 39 10.1	8 —1.07	46 39.9.2	
	180 0 4 0	3.991	-0 03 180 O	
	Dairoor hill	rom {Inpahgutt, Kotapilly,		175161.6 131802 7

8. DESCRIPTION OF THE GREAT STATIONS.

Base Line.—The west end is on a high ground near Beder about ten miles north, and three and a half miles north west by west from Kauramoongy nearly. The station is on the highest part of the ground marked by a platform built of stone and chunam, level with the surface of the ground, having a large stone in the center marked with a circle. There are several villages around this station, as Shicarkanah to the south west about two miles; Oudoospoor one and a quarter miles west, and Tashigy about one and a half miles west northwest.

The east end is at the north east angle of a field on the northern declivity of the high ground lying between the villages of Daumergidda and Naugulgidda, both which are situated on the great road leading from Morting to Hydrahad by way of Josephur. The station is marked by a platform of stone and chunam taised three seet above the ground, in the center of which is a stone with a circle.

Daumergidda station. The grand station of observation in latitude 3 23.6 is on a conspicuous high ground about one mile north east from the village of Daumergidda, and about eight miles west from Narain-kadda. The station is on the summit of the high black cotton ground, a few feet west of the road leading from Chillerizy to Angherrizy, and is marked by a stone platform level with the ground having a stone at the soundation marked with a circle and corresponding with the mark on the stone above.

Malliga hili. The most conspicatous hill of a range seemingly connected with the Beder heights, about six miles east from Beder, and about one mile south east of Malliga, a small village from which the hill derives its name. The station is marked on the gravel rock and a stone with a circle laid over it, surrounded with a pile of stones supporting a small tree.

Doodallah station is on an extensive range of high grounds in a direction cast and west, and is about two and a half miles north east of Ggarwadda, and about one mile north of Doodallah. The station is marked by a stone and circle on a platform.

Note. The great tree on the high ground about three-quarters of a mile from the station, being in the way of the slag at Malliga, a branch of the tree was cleared off in order to observe the slag on the less side of in

at order to like a collar of

Sheelapilly station is on a conspicuous nob or mound of earth rising about 60 feet above the plain on which it stands, its base not sensibly differing from a circle whose diameter may be 200 feet nearly; this station is about 4 miles west of Sungum and 2½ miles south of Moongy, both places being on the road from Beder to Hydrabad. A circle inscribed on a stone in the center of a circular platform of clay about 10 feet high, raised on the nob with a marked stone at the soundation, defines the station.

Taudmunneer station, is on a high ground about 7 miles west from Jogypett, situated between Royepaud and Taudmunneer. The station is defined by a circle inserted on a stone.

Goraegutt hill. This is a low brown hill taking its name from a very small village at the south east foot; lying about $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile west of Goplaveram, a low fortified hill, and about 4 miles south west of Moonpully, a village of some note on the great road from Hydrabad to Beder. The station is marked by a stone and circle on the summit about 60 feet north east of a stone pillar.

Topecondah. This is about 12 miles east of Mominpett, and about 3 miles west of Dobeepett, a large village in the road from Mominpett to Hydrabad, and the village which gives the name to the station, is at the east foot of a low hill and pagoda lying about one mile east of the station. A stone with a circle on the summit defines the station.

Kotamarpilly. This station is on the fouth extremity of a low gravel ridge about 2 miles east fouth east of Pedda Marpilly, about \(\frac{3}{4}\) of a mile from Kotamarpilly, and about 10 miles west of Mominpett, a place of considerable note. The station is marked on the gravel rock about 200 feet south east of a remarkable Banian tree.

Annantagherry hill. This is a flat hill covered with thick jungle, fituated

about 11 miles north of *Purgy*, and about 8 miles east of *Dorade*. The vifiation is about one mile fouth west of the Pageda, on a platform marked by a stone with a circle.

Kotakoddangul station, on a high ground about 1½ mile north by east of the large village of Kotakoddangul, and about half a mile north west of a remarkable tree on the same ground. The station is marked by a stone and circle in the middle of a platform.

Purgy hill. The fouthernmost of a mass of hills covered with much jungle, situated about 3 miles north east of Purgy.—Near the west foot of the hill is a small village, Mulla Boyengoodum. The jungle on the hill has been cleared and a platform raised, in the middle of which is a stone with a circle marking the station.

Pochamagutt. This is a low hill though the highest in that neighbourhood. It is surrounded to a great extent with much jungle, and derives its name from a place of worship in the vicinity, and is about one mile east from Coofmasundrum. The jungle has been cleared from the top, and a stone with a circle sunk on the summit denotes the station.

Kaunkoortee hill. A flat hill on the Table land, about 6 miles north east of Goondamettakul, a very extensive place, and about 14 mile north of Kaunkoortee.—The station is marked by a circle on a stone fixed on the top of the hill, and near the west brink.—Annagoondy, a well known hill, having two very remarkable trees on the summit, is about one mile west of the station.

Kundkoor. A low hill below the Table land about to miles west of Naranapettah, about six miles south west of Goondamettakul, and 1½ mile south east of Chintelpilly: the village from which the hill derives its name, is at the south soot. The station is marked by a stone and circle sunk on the summit of the hill.

REDUCTION OF THE SIDES OF THE MERIDIONAL TRIANGLES TO THE MERIDIAN OF DODAGOONTAH FOR DETERMINING THE LENGTH OF THE TERRESTRIAL ARC.

The length of the Arc comprehended by the parallels of Dodagoontah station, and the stations at Namthabad and)aumergidda,

Stations at	Names of Places.	Bearings referred to the Meridian of Distance,	Distances on the		n Dodegovaten the
	T. FRID. AT V 164141	Dadagoontal Sta	Perpendicular. Heridian	Perpendicular	Meridian,
Yerracondah, Ooracondah, Davurcondah, Gootydroog, Koelacondah, Poolycondah, Kerra Bellagul, Derroor, Hill, Knpahguit, Kotakoddangul,	Ooracondah, Davurcondah, Gootydroog, Namihahad, koelacondah, Puolycondah, Kerra Beliagul, Darroor Hill, Rotakuddangul,	21.5 N.W 120785.7 52.1 N. E. 150506.1 0 16 40.6 N. E. 158946.2 70 43 30.6 S. W. 16472.2 10 59 34.9 N.W. 76750.9 4 6 33.9 N.W. 54084 1 13 21 56.9 N. E. 127920.1 3 4 35.9 N.W. 150701.3 0 45 15 7 N.W 175159 1 1 42 38.8 N.W. 53863.3	14550.4 E. 149801.1 N. 771.1 E. 158944.3 N. 15948.9 W. 5437.4 S. 14635.6 W. 75342.5 N. 3875.7 W. 55945 N. 29570 9 E. 124355.3 N. 8088 4 W. 150484.1 N. 2306.1 W. 175444 N. 4593.5 W. 158794.7 N.	8305.5 B. 9076 6 B. 6472.3 W. 5559 W. 9434.7 W. 20136 2 E. 12047.8 E. 9741.7 E.	FERT. 4584887 N. 608289.8 N. 761796.6 N. 842576.6 N. 896521 6 N. 1020076 9 N. 1171461 N. 1346605 N.
Sheelapilly,	heelapilly, Danmergidda Hill.,	2 20 25.7 N. E 231767,0 0. 1 33. N. E,1103250 &	9464.9 E. 231.574.4 N _c 46,6 E. 103250 C N	14613.1 E. 14659.7 E.	1731974 2 N. 1835224.8 N.

The terestrial arc between Dodagoontah and Namthabad Station as in the foregoing table is
And the terestrial arc between Dodagoontals and 727334 6 The sum will be the terestrial arc between Putchapolliam and Namthabad equal
And the terestrial arc between Dodagoontals and 727334 6 The sum will be the terestrial arc between Putchapolliam and Namthabad equal
The sum will be the terestrial arc between Putchapolliam 1489131.2 To which add the terestrial arc between Putchapolliam and Punnae station (see A. R. Vol. 12,)
The sum will be the terestrial arc between Putchapolliam and Namthabad equal
To which add the terestrial arc between Putchapolliam and Punnae station (see A. R. Vol. 12,)
To which add the terestrial arc between Puttuapottam and Punnae station (see A. R. Vol. 12,)
Punnae station (see A. R. Vol. 12,) We have for the terestrial are between Punnae and Nam- thabad station. The terestrial are between Dodagoontah and Daumergidda as in the preceeding table is
We have for the terestrial arc between Punnae and Nam- thabad station. The terestrial arc between Dodagoontah and Daumergidda as in the preceeding table is
thabad station. The terestrial arc between Dodagoontah and Daumergidda: as in the preceeding table is
The terestrial arc between Dodagoontah and Daumergidda as in the preceeding table is
And the terestrial arc between Dodagoontah and Name thabad equal
And the terestrial arc between Dodagoontal and Name thabad equal 7617966 The difference will be the terestrial arc between Name thabad and Daumergidda 1073428.2 To which add the terestrial arc between Punnae and Nanthabad as above 2518231.7
The difference will be the terestrial arc between Nam- thabad and Daumergidda. To which add the terestrial arc between Punnae and Nanthabad as above
The difference will be the terestrial arc between Nam- thabad and Daumergidda
The difference will be the terestrial arc between Nam- thabad and Daumergidda
To which add the terestrial arc between Punnae and Nanthabad as above
Nanthabad as above 2518231.7
Nanthabad as above 2516231.7
be the terestrial arc between Daumergidda
The sum will be the terestrial are between 222 3591659 9
and Punnae station.
Tarish differees of Stars observed at Punnae, Namihabad, and

10. Zenith distances of Stars observed at Punnae, Namthabad, and Daumergidda stations, with their corrections for precession, nutation, aberration, and the semi-annual solar equation, back to the beginning of the year 1805.



OBSERVATIONS AT PUNNAE STATION;

)

· LEONIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 2 35 N.

1809.	Face.	Observed	Corrections.	Correct	Therm	ometers.
Month.	race.	Zenith distance.	Corrections.	Zenith distance.	Upper.	Lower
			+			
1		0 , "	1 1	0, .	0	•
April 12	E.	2 35 25.13	1 19 970	2 36 45.100	84	84
13	w.	2 35 36.63	1 19.931	2 36 56.561	84	83
14	E.	2 35 23.63	1 19.890	2 36 43.520	85	81
16	w.	2 35 34.13	1 19 798	2 36 53.928	85	84
17	Е.	2 35 23.88	1 19.755	2 36 43.635	84	83
18	w.	2 35 34.5	1 19710	2 36 54.210	84	83
19	E.	2 35 23.5	1 19.661	2 36 43.161	84	84
20	W.	2 35 34.5	1 19616	2 36 54.116	84	84
23	E	2 35 23.25	1 19.480	2 36 42.730	83	83
21	w.	2 35 35.38	1 10.497	2 36 54.807	83	83
25	Ε.	2 35 24 5	1 19.376	2 36 43.876	84	84
26	W.	2 35 35 75	1 19.324	2 36 55,074	85	85
27	E	2 35 24.25	1 19 273	2 36 43.523	85	86
28	W.	2 35 36.88	1 19 221	2 36 56,101	86	87
29	E.	2 35 23.63	1 19.169	2 36 42,799	84	85
30	w.	2 35 36.63	1-19.117	2 36 55,747	87	87
May 2	Е.	2 35 23 38	1 19.026	2 36 42.406	84	81
3	w.	2 35 38.	1 18.972	2 36 56.972	82	82
5	E.	2 35 25.5	1 18.865	2 36 44.365	84	. 84
6	W.	2 35 34.75	1 18.820	2 36 53.570	84	81
7	E.	2 35 25.88	1 18.766	2 36 44.646	. 84	81
				Mean	84.14	81.94

A THE WAY THE REGULUS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 4 45 N.

1809.	Observed		Correct	Thermo	meters.
Month.	i wel C.	errations?	Zenith Distance.	Upper.	Lower.
13 14 16 17 18 90 24 25 26 27 28 30 May 2	V. 4 44 2 4 43 49.87 V. 4 43 59.37 R. 4 43 49.87 W. 4 43 49.87 W. 4 43 49.87 W. 4 43 50.5 E. 4 43 51.12 W. 4 43 69.5 W. 4 43 69.5 W. 4 43 48.87 W. 4 43 49.12 W. 4 43 50.87 W. 4 43 50.87 W. 4 43 50.87 W. 4 44 2.87	+ 43.0° 1.24.470° 1.24.359 1.24.311 1.24.211 1.24.211 1.24.211 1.24.211 1.24.211 1.24.211 1.24.211 1.24.211 1.24.211 1.23.679 1.23.679 1.23.617 1.23.617 1.23.617 1.23.617 1.23.617 1.23.617 1.23.617 1.23.617 1.23.617 1.23.618 1.23.71 1.23.08 1.23.219 1.23.219 1.23.219 1.23.08 1.23.08 1.23.08	4 45 133 389 4 45 26.359 4 45 14.181 4 45 23.581 4 45 14.017 4 45 26.093 4 45 12.976 4 45 23 235 4 45 14.799 4 45 24.147 4 45 12 416 4 45 23 855 4 45 11.798 4 45 24.981 4 45 12 119 4 45 26.058 4 35 12.191 4 45 24.878 4 45 13.817 4 45 25.759	0 84 84 83 85 84 83 82 82 84 81 83 83 83 83 83 83	8 # 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8
8	W		Mean	H3.25	83.95

. LEONIS..

Nearest point on the Limb, 8 20 N.

7 W. 8 18 31.02: 1 30.142 8 20 1.702

ALEONIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 7 30 N.

1809.	Face.	Observed	Corrections.	Correct	Therm	ineters.
Month.		Zenith distance.	, Contractions,	Zenith distance,	Upper.	Lower.
May	12 F. 3 W. 4 F. W. 17 F. 18 W. 19 W. 23 E. 14 W. 15 E. 16 W. 15 F. W. 17 F. W. 18 F.	7 28 22.87 7 28 87.37 7 28 87.37 7 28 34.24 7 28 31.2 7 28 32.12 7 28 35.82 7 28 35.87 7 28 36.87 7 28 36.87 7 28 36.87 7 28 36.87 7 28 36.87 7 28 36.87 7 28 32.87 7 28 37.87 7 28 39.87 7 28 39.87	+ 31.718 1 34.631 1 34.534 1 34.534 1 34.369 1 34.279 1 34.185 1 34.088 1 33.986 1 33.593 1 33.494 1 33.391 1 38.192 1 33.084 1 32.978 1 32.978 1 32.596 1 32.503 1 32.400 1 32.509	7 29 67.589 7 30 12.001 7 30 0.404 7 30 8.609 7 29 55.619 7 30 6.305 7 29 59.328 7 30 7.606 7 29 59.568 7 30 8.963 7 30 9.261 7 29 59.062 7 30 11.954 7 29 55.848 7 30 11.758 7 30 11.758 7 30 11.778 7 29 57.779	84 83 83 83 82 82 81 82 84 83 82 84 83 82 82 82 82 82	84 83 82 82 82 82 81 82 83 83 83 84 83 84 83 84 83 84 84 82 82 82 82 82 82
	1 1		1	Mean	82.38	82.48

·VIRGINIS.

. Nearest point on the Limb, 3 50 N

	+	-			`	11 4 1
A	w.	3 49 36.62	+ (51 7.952		e.
April : 18	E.		1 31.332 3		82	12 81
, 19		3 49 26	1 31.942 3		82	82
20	W	3 49 35	1 31.159 3		80	' , 8ı
23	F	3 49 26	1 30.845 3	50 56,845	8 82	82
25	W.	3 49 35.37	1 30 614 3	51 0.014	18t 1	82
, 26	E.	3 49 '95 87	1 30 540 3	50 56:410	82.	83
. 28	W.	3 49 58	1 30.391 3	51 8.321	83	1 . 64
29	E.	3 49 26	1 30 218 3	50 56.218	83 83	1
. 30	W.	3 49 39	1 30.114 3		82	83
	E.				82	. 82,
May 3	W	3 49 27 87	1 20.791 3	50 - 57.661	82.	82
4	1	3 40 38.95	1 2P.688 3	51 7.938	81	. 82
5	E.	3 49 26.75	1 29.578 3	50 56 328	82	82
6	w.	3 49 37 12	1 29.460 3	51 6 586	81	82
7	E. }	3 49 28 6	1 29.355 3	50 57,955	81	82
			1.	T.		a mar lan national i service à
				Mean	81.71	82,14

SERPENTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 3 0 N.

			Correct	Thermor	neters.
Month.	Observed Zenith distance.	Corrections.	Zenich distance.	Upper.	Lower.
April 18	W. 3 1 30.76 E. 3 1 20.13 W. 3 1 29.26 E. 3 1 20.63 W. 3 1 29.45 S. 1 20.13 W. 3 1 20.11 W. 3 1 20.1 W. 3 1 20.1 W. 3 1 32.3 E. 3 1 20.1 W. 3 1 32.5 E. 3 1 20.6 W. 3 1 32.5 E. 3 1 20.6 S. 3 1 20.6 S. 3 1 20.6 S. 3 1 20.6	58.164 58.058 57.702 57.576 57.445 57.317 57.189 57.056 3 56.921 1 56.792 3 56.376 56.096 55.094	3 2 20.029 3 2 18.294 3 2 27.318 3 2 18.332 3 2 27.206 3 2 17.575 3 2.26.447 3 2 17.319 3 2 29.316 3 2 17.051 3 2 29.302 3 2 15.506 3 2 28.476 3 2 16.579 3 2 28.434 Mean	80 80 81 81 80 82 83 84 83 84 83 80 81 81 81	99 80 80 81 81 80 82 83 83 83 83 83 81 81

" SERPENTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 8 5 N.

April 18 W. 19 E. W. 20 23 W. E. 25 E. W. 27 E. 28 W. 29 W. May 3 E. W. 7 E. T. 28 W. 7 E. T. 29 W. 20	8 7 52.26 8 7 42.39 8 7 52.14 8 7 40.51 8 7 52.89 8 7 42.26 8 7 42.26 8 7 43.64 8 7 56.89 8 7 42.39 8 7 56.64 8 7 56.89 8 7 44.14 8 7 56.89 8 7 46.26	8 6 44 015 8 8 34.013 8 8 43 622 8 8 31.553 8 8 43.761 8 8 33.069 8 8 46.977 8 8 31.067 8 8 46.160 8 8 32.498 8 8 33.583 8 8 45 828 8 8 35.026 Mean	80 80 80 81 81 80 82 83 83 83 80 81 81	79. 80 80 81 81 80 82 83 84 63 83 80 81 81
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DESERVATIONS AT NAMEHABAD STATION.

e sedi	,		LEONI on the Lin	s. b; 1 ² 25 5.	-19-E-13 -	47 8 1. 14 14 11
1811.	Face.	Observed.	Corrections.	ri Ciricia	Therm	ometers.
Month.		Zenick Distance.		Zields ditidace.	Upper.	
April 18 20 21 21	W.	4 21 0 13 4 21 19.53 4 21 10 38 4 21 18 26	1 48 961 1 48 867 1 48:807 1 48:761	4 19 20.169 4 19 20.673 4 19 21.673 4 19 29.499	96 83 84 87	86 83 84 87
24 25 26 27	W. E. W.	4 21 8 68 4 21 20 13 4 21 9 63 4 21 79 13	1 48.656 1 48.599 1 48.549 1 48.498	4 19 19 574 4 19 31.531 4 19 21.088 4 19 30.642	91 92 94	91 92 93.
28 29 30 May 2	W. E. W.	4 21 9 63 4 21 19.26 4 21 9.63 4 21 19.38	1 48.431 1 48.377 1 48.318	4 19 21,199 4 19 30,883 4 19 21,312	94 93 92	96 94 93 92
May 2	E.	4 21 19.55	11,40,221	1 4 19 31.159 Mean	78 89.2	79 89.2

REGULUS.

	ricares poo	nt on the Limb	, 2°10 S.		of Life
203 21 221 231 24 25 20 27 48	W. 2 19 47.81 E. 2 19 58.89 W. 2 12 46.76 E. 2 12 58.89 W. 2 19 44.76 E. 2 19 58.89 7. 19 58.89 7. 19 58.91 W. 2 19 44.74 E. 2 19 58.87	1 55.2 55 1 55.4 50 1 55.4 52 1 55.0 57 1 54.0 52 2 54.0 52 2 54.0 52 1 54.801 1 54.730	\$ 100 5851 39 \$1146 356 38 \$146 356 55 \$146 457 08 \$166 457 08 \$166 457 38 \$166 457 38 \$166 457 38 \$166 457 38 \$166 457 38	60 63 60 63 60 63 91 91 93	86 84 83 86 83 91 91
	E. 2 12 57.62	1 54.603	2 10 52.203 2 11 3.017	93 92	93 92

MEASUREMENT OF AN ARC

PURTATE CATALLEONIS. PAGELLE

Nearest point on the Limb, 5 40 N.

1811.		E de			Thermo	ome'ers.
Month.	Face.	Observed Eenith distance.	Corrections.	Correct Zenlih distance.	Upper.	Lower
April 18	w.	0 4 4 5(44-33)13	+ 0 1 55.018	0 , (c 5-43-29:148	n 81	o 84
20 21	E. W.	5 41 22.63 5 41 33.63	1 55.837 1 55.754	5 43 18.467 5 43 29.384	84 84	84 84
22 23	E. W.	5 41 21,13 5 41 34.56	1 55.673 1 55.586	5 43 16 803 5 43 30,146	86 84	86 83
7 95	E. W.	5 41 20.38 5 41 35.43	1 55.497 1 55 411	5 43 15.877 5 43 30 541	90 °	90 91
27	w.	5 41 21.13 5 41 33.13	1 55.329 1 55.241	5 43 16.459 5 43 28 371	93 95	92
37 98 99 90 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	W.	5 44 22.26 5 41 32.88 5 41 82.13	1 55 149 1 55.064 1 54,980	5 43 17.409 5 43 27.914 5 43 17.110	91	94 92
	5.0°	117, 11	2 04,900	Mean	92 89 L	92

Nearest point on the Limb, 1 20 N.

	April 20 21 22 23 4 24 1 25 24 27 28 27 28 29 21 29	E .1 21 20.26 W. 1 21 40.26 B. 1 21 28.13 W. 1 21 40.13 B. 1 21 28.29 W. 1 21 48.13 E. 1 21 30.18 W. 1 21 29.63 W. 1 21 29.63 W. 1 21 30.3 W. 1 21 30.3	2 6.441 1 2 6.348 1 2 6.256 1 2 3 6.156 1 2 3 6.067 1 2 3 6.067 1 2 5 6.067 1 2 5 6.067 1 2 5 6.067 1 2 5 6.068 1	3 35.794 80 3 46.701 82 3 34.478 85 3 46.386 82 3 34.436 89 5 49.197 88 3 36.109 9.1 3 46.003 9.3 3 35.409 9.3 3 46.194 9.0 3 34.718 9.0 3 43.990 9.0	80 82 85 81 89 88 91 93 90
--	--	---	---	--	--

B. LEONIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, o 30 M.

181)		Face.	Observed	Corrections.	Gozrest!''	Thermo	meters:
Mon	h. (Zenith diatange.		Zenishi distance."	Upper	Lower
A pail	18 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	W. E. W. E. W. E. W. E. W.	0 31 42.13 0 31 33.76 0 31 45 51 0 31 33.63 0 31 47 26 0 31 31.38 0 31 46.01 0 31 35.13 0 31 46.26 0 31 35.13 0 31 46.25 0 31 35.13	2 9,922 12 9,724 2 9,625 2 9,522 2 9,428 2 9,328 2 9,225 2 9,130 2 9,023 2 8,921 2 8,813 2 8,701	0 (33 59.052) 0 (33 43.484) 0 (33 55.335) 0 (33 56.688) 0 (33 56.688) 0 (33 56.688) 0 (33 56.688) 0 (33 55.283) 0 (33 55.283) 0 (33 44.051) 0 (33 55.323) 0 (33 41.831)	87 88 81 81 87 86 90 92 92 90 90	86 79 81 84 81 87 88 90 92 92 92 90
	1	1		k	Mean	≻6 B	86.7

- VIRCINIS

Nearest point	on the Limb,	3 5	S. .
	1 1 11 7 1 1		

April '	25· 26	W. E.	3	7 23 39	2: 5.010° 2 2 4.906	3	5 4 (20 5 18.485	87 90	. 86
	27	W.	3.	7 12.13	2 4.502	3	5 7.328 5 15 677	90 88	, 90 88
May	30	W.	-	7 1 301 2 30.76	2: 4.470	4	5 8.831. 5 16.595	88 82	` 88 82

8

* BOOTISA

Mearest point on the Limb, 4 15 N.

181,1	٠., ﴿		Observed	C	Correct	The mot	neters.
Mond		Face.	Zanich distance.	Corrections.	· Zenith distance.	Upper.	Lower.
Me	24468887	W. E. W. E. W.	0 4 44 4 35 2.80 4 34 52.87 4 35 2.25 4 14 52.87 4 25 4.00 4 14 53.87 4 15 4.80 4 14 55.12	1 52.448 1 52.292 1 52.184 1 51.979 1 51.662 1 51.512 1 91.357 1 90.881	0 4 44 4 16 54448 4 10 45102 4 10 54384 4 16 44.849 4 16 55.662 4 16 45.382 4 16 55.857 4 16 46.001	0 75 81 80 85 84 88 87	0 76 81 80 84 4 84 1 88 1 87
			1		Mean	83:88	83.7

ARCTURUS.

Nearest point on the Link, 5 5 N.

May	1 E. W. S E. W. F. W. S W. 9 E.	5 4 9 5 4 21 5 4 10,37 5 4 20 5 4 10 5 4 20,12 5 4 9.87 5 4 9.87 5 4 9.87 5 4 19.87	1 57.340 8 1 57.194 8 1 57.046 5 1 56.885 5 1 56.721 8 1 56.237 5 1 54.075 8	6 6.349 6 7.416 6 7.416 6 76.865 6 76.721 6 16.679 6 16.348 6 17.337 6 5.946 6 14.957	82 77 81 79 84 84 84 84	82 77 81 79 84 84 84 87
	15 W.	19.47	1 56.082	Mean	83.1	83.0

BOOTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 0 35 s.

1811.	Face.	Observed	Corrections.	Correct	Therm	ometers.	
Month.		Zenith distance.		Zenith distance.	Upper.	Lower	
		0 , " _		.0,	0	0	
May 3	E.	0 33 17.87	1 38.712	0 31 39/158	81	81	
4	W.	0 33 9.74	1 38.574	0 31 31.166	79	79	
5	E.	0 33 20.24	1 38.426	0 31 41,814	84	-84	
7	W.	0 33 7.74	1 38.140	0 31 29.600	84	84	
8	E.	0 33 17.89	1 37.991	0 31 39.899	87	87	
15	W.	£ 33 6.49	1 36.949	0 31 22.641	84	84 .	
1	1		1	Mean	83.17	83.17	

3 SERPENTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 3 55 5.

May 1	E.	2.55 15.18	1 17.866	8 53 57-264	81	81
- 18	W.	3 55 6.5	1 17.598	3 53 48,902	81	81
A	E.	"# 55 14.0	1 17.456	3 53 56 544	. 79	79
-5	W.	5 55 🔏	1 17.321	\$ 53 46.679	-81	81 '
7	E.	3 45 15.13	1 17.048	3 53 5%.087	84	84
.9	W.	3 55 475	1 16.761	3 53 47.989	86	86
.15	E.	3 55 11.63	1 15.899	3 58 55.731	85	85
	- 1			Mean	H2.43	×2.14

* SERPENTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, o 55 N.

May 1	E.	0 55 14.5	1 12.785	·0 \$6 27.285	81	81
3	W.	-0 55 22.68	1 12.467	0 86 35.097	81	81
.4	E	0 55 16	1 12.307	0 56 28.307	78	78
. 5	W.	0 55 24.5	1 12.148	0 56 36.648	81	81
.7	E.	0 55 15.13	1 11.817	·O 55 26 947	84	-84
-8	W.	0 55 25.25	1 11.658	0 55 35.908	86	86
.9	F.	.0 65 15.33	1 11.484	.0 56 26.814	86	86
115	W.	0.45 25.5	1,10.452	0 46 35.952	84	84

MEASUREMENT OF AN ARC

· SERPENTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 1 10 N.

Face.	Observed Zenith distance.	Corrections.	Correct Zenith distance.	Upper.	Lower.
1 E. W. E. W. E. W. E. W. E. W. E. W.	1 11 10.38 1 11 21.01 1 11 10.63	+ 1 8 156 1 7.832 1 7.669 1 7.506 1 7.174 1 7.011 1 6.837 1 5.786	0 (4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	81 81 78 81 84 86 86 86 84	81 81 78 81 84 86 86 84

* HENUUMAN.

carest point on the Limb, 4 30 N.

Hay 1 E. 4 30 13 13 55.13 55.968 55.787 E. 4 30 23.5 55.069 55.787 E. 4 30 25.13 55.056 55.05	4 31 10.259 4 31 19.359 4 31 8.924 4 31 20.186 4 31 8.872	27 81 78 82 84 86 85	81 78 82 84 86 85
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ON THE MEREDIAN.

OBSERVATIONS AT DAUMERGIDDA. LEONIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 7 20 5.

1815. Face.		Observed "		Correct '	Thermometers.		
Month.	Page.	Zquith Distance.	Corrections.	Zenith Distance.	Upper.	Lower.	
February 14 15 16 17 18 19 22 23 24 25 26 27 8 March 1 3 4	W. E. W.	0	2. 43.641 2. 43.640 2. 43.680 2. 43.711 2. 43.733 2. 43.755 2. 43.842 2. 42.836 2. 43.851 2. 43.875 2. 43.893 2. 43.903 2. 43.903	7 16 \$9.709 7 16 \$9.709 7 16 51.860 7 16 54.869 7 16 54.289 7 16 54.4017 7 16 51.485 7 16 36.178 7 16 34.525 7 16 34.981 7 16 54.545 7 16 34.981 7 16 53.877 7 16 38.061 7 16 35.057 7 16 37.724	64 66 70 73 74 73 70 70 68 75 78 76 73 75	73 74 73 73 70 70 69 76 78 75 77	
				Mean	72.2	72.3	

REGULUS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 5 10 S.

ebrua: v 14	w.	5 11 6.63	2 56.105	5	8 10 525	65	65
ebrua: y 14 15	E.	5 11 19 63	2 55.128	6	8 23.502	64,	_
16	w.	5 11 8 61	2 56.153	¥.	8 12,457	70.	64 70
17	E. 1	5 11 17.38	2 56.181	5	8 21.199	72	72
18	1	5 11 7.13	2 56,202	3	8 10.928	72	72
19	1 1	5 11 18.75	2 56 226	B	8. 22.524	73.	73
21	W. 4	5 11 7.13	2 56,242	ě	8 10.888	75	75
22		5 11 20,23	2 56.253	5	8 23.977	73.	73
. 24) 1	5 11 20 63	2 56.250	5	8 24.370	68	68
25	1.	5 11 4:43	2 56,265	Š	8 8.165	68.	. 09
26		5 11 19.13	2 58,269	5	8 22.861	75	75
. 27	E. 3	5 11 5.13	2 56,274	5	8, 8,856	78	79
28	w. ;	5 11 19.0	2 56.279	5	8 22.721	74	74
March, 3		5 11 4,91	2 56.281	5	8 8.629	73	73
4	W.	5 11 19.76	2 56.269	5	8 23.491	74	74
	E.	5 11 4.53	2 55,267	5	8 8,363	74	74
•			1 1		Mean	71.8	71.

MEASUREMENT OF AN ARC

· LEONIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 2 45 N.

				1	Correct	hermot	neters.
Month.	1	ace.	Observed Zenith distance.	Corrections.	Zenith distance.	¿Upper.	Lower.
February March	14 15 16 17 18 21 22 24 25 26 27 28 2 3 4 5	W. E.	2 43 5.12 2 42 40.67 2 43 2.52 2 42 53.87 2 43 5.12 2 42 51.74 2 43 4.74 2 42 53.24 2 43 1.46 2 42 50.87 2 43 7.74 2 43 6.24 2 43 6.24	3 1.598 3 .1.559 3 .1.559 3 .1.559 3 .1.538 3 .1.511 3 ,1.377 3 ,1.292 3 .1.292 3 .1.230 3 .1.136 3 .1.136 3 .1.043 3 ,0.991 3 .0.930 5 ,0.877	2 40 017	66 64 71 72 72 75 73 68 75 79 74 76 73 73 74	66 61 70 72 72 75 73 68 69 75 79 74 77 73 75 75

. LEONIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 1 35 5.

February 14 W. 1 36 51.76 15 W. 1 36 51.01 17 E. 1 37 4.26 18 W. 1 36 55.63 19 K. 1 37 6.26 23 E. 1 37 6.26 24 W. 1 36 50.26 25 E. 1 37 7.13 26 W. 1 36 52.26 27 R. 1 37 5.26 W. 1 36 51.23 4 E. 1 37 5.26 W. 1 36 51.23 4 E. 1 37 5.26 W. 1 36 51.23	3 19.135 1 33 32.625 3 19.156 1 33 43.863 3 19.181 1 33 31.829 3 19.200 1 23 45.060 2 19.214 1 33 36.416 3 19.227 1 33 45.903 3 19.223 1 33 34.037 3 19.222 1 33 47.038 3 19.208 1 33 31.052 3 19.201 1 33 47.929 3 19.201 1 33 47.929 3 19.201 1 33 46.059 3 19.107 1 33 46.153 3 19.107 1 33 32.098 3 19.064 1 33 32.046	0 65 64 71 71 73 70 71 65 68 74 75 73 73	0 64 64 70 71 72 71 71 65 68 74 75 73 73
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LEONIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 2 25 S.

1815	•	ė.	•	Obsé	rveđ			Cor	rect' .	Thermon	icters.
Month	i.	Face	Zen	it h ' d	istance.	Corrections.	Ze	nitb'	distance.	Upper.	Lower.
February	14	W. E.	2 2 2	26 27	50.26 4 63	3 25.504 3 25.544	0 2 2	25 23	24.756 39.086	6 64 63	63 63
	16	w.	2	20	50.38	3 25.678	2	23	24.802	70	70
	18	E.	2	27	3.76	3 25.640	. 2	23	38.120	70	70
	19	W.	2	26	51.68	3 25 671	2	23	25.959	72	72
	21	E.	2	27	4.13	3 25.702	2	23	38 428	74	74
	22	W.	2	25	51.63	3 25.713	2	23	25 917	70	70
	23	E.	2	27	7.06	3 25.713	2	23	41 347	68	68
	24	W.	2	26	49.63	3 25.710	2	23	23.920	65	65
	25	E	9	27	6.00	3 25.726	2	23	40.274	67	67
	26	w.	2	26	49.66	3 25,735	2	23	23 925	73	73
	27	17.	2	27	4 26	3 25.739	2	23	38,521	75	75
March	3	W.	2	26	48.63	8 25.719	2	23	22.911	74	74
	4	E.	2	27	6.76	3 25.706	2	23	41.054	74	74
	D	W.	2	25	49.26	3 25.693	2	23	23.567	73	73
•					•				Mean	70.13	70.07

. VIRGINIS.

Wearest point on the Limb, 6 5 N.

lanuary	31	W.	6	5	41	3 19.012	1 6	2	21.988	35	6 5
elicuary	1	w.	6	5	42.5	3 19.134	6	2	23,366	64	64
·	3	Е.	б	5	55.5	8 19.375	6	2	37.125	64	65
	4	W.	6	5	43.5	3 19.498	1 5	2	24(002	65	66
	5	F	O	5	58.13	8 19.611	6	2	38,619	64	65
	6	W. 1	б	5	43-13	3 19,720	. 6	2	23(410	59	60
	7	E. 1	6	G	0.63	3 19.831	6	2	40,799	58	59
	8	W.	б	5	39 5	3 19.945	6	2	19,655.	58	58
	9,	E.	6	5	58 73	3 20,044	6	2	38,586	62	62
	11	W.	6	5	57 67	3 90.218	6	3	37-412	67	66
	13	W	6	5	44, 3	3 90.394	6	2	23.736	63 .	63
	14	E.	6	5	59 1 3	3 20,477	6	2	38.653	61	61
	15	w. ;	6	5	43.5	3 90.554	6	2	22,946	63	63
	17	E.	6	5	59.45	3 20.700	6	2	38,550	70	70
	18	w.	6	5	42.58	3 20.773	6	2	22.107	67	67
	19	E.	6	5	57.88	3 20.837	6	. 3	37.043	69	70
	1						, }		Meen	63.69	64

.19

, BOOTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 1 15 N.

				Correct	Therm of	neters.
1811. Month.	Face.	Observed Zenith distance.	Corrections.	Zonith, distances	Upper	Low er.
February 1 2 3 5 6 7 8 9 11 13 14 15 16 18 19	E. W. W. W.	1 16 28.13 1 16 18.13 1 16 15.63 1 16 14 63 1 16 26.63 1 16 14 63 1 16 26.63 1 16 16.63 1 16 28.13 1 16 14.26 1 16 27.63 1 16 15 13 1 16 26.63 1 16 27.63 1 16 27.63 1 16 27.63	3 6.136 3 6.250 3 6.364 3 6.594 3 6.701 3 6.810 3 6.901 3 7.162 3 7.162 3 7.311 3 7.388 3 7.460 3 7.532 3 7.635 3 7.690	1 10 34.266 1, 19 24.380 1 19 21 994 1 19 21.224 1 19 33.331 1 19 21.440 1 19 33.531 1, 19 23.636 1 19 35.292 1, 19 21.571 1 19 35 018 1 19 22.590 1 19 34.162 1 19 31 265 1 19 32.820 Mear	65. 66 64, 59 58 57 62 65, 61 63 68 66 67	66 66 65 64 59 58 58 62 64 60 61 62 69 67 68

ARCTURUS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 2 5 N.

, 9 35.0	•	Mean	63.47	68.74
5 26.38- 5 35.0	3 16 272 3 16.334	2 8 51.334	66	67
5 39.5	3 16 213	2 8 42.652	66	66
5 29.0	3 16.148	2 8 55.713	. 69.	69
. 5 41.5	3 16.072	2 8 45.148	69	70
5 30.5	3 15.988	2 8 57.572	61	61
· 6 40.13.	3 15.905	2 8 46.488	61	61
. 5 28,00	3 15 818	2 8 43,818 2 8 56,035	60	60
5 39.38	3 15 726		66	66
. 5 26.88	3 15,530	2 8 49.410 2 8 55.106	65	65
5 39-13	3 15.420	9 8 54 550	63	63
5 28.0	3 15 315	2 8 43.315	56	56
5. 41.5	3 15.295	3 8 56.705	59 59	58
5 28.13	3 15 086	2 8 43.216	63	59
5 41.5	3-14.960	2 8 56.460	64	65 63
5 29.5 5 25.5	3 14.833	2 8 40.333	64	65
5 41.38	3 14.710	2 8 44.210	66	66
5 39 75	3 14 573	2 8 55.953	65	66
	3 14.443	2 8 54.193	. 64	65
	+	0, "	0 \	O

BOOTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 3 30 S.

.1815.					Thermo	meters.
Month.	Face.	Observed Zenith Distance.	Corrections.	Correct Zenith distance.	Upper.	Lower.
February 13	w.	3 31 31.63	2 45.086	. 3 28 46.544	59	59
14	E.]	3 31 42.63	2 45.189	3 28 57.441	60	60
15	w.	. 3 31 27 13	2 45.294	3 28 41.836	61	61
17	B.	3 31 45,13	2 45.474	3 28 59.656	68	68
18	W.	3 31. 28.63	2 45.563	3 28 43.067	66	66
19	E.	3 31 42.01	2 45.653	3 28 56.357	66	67
21	W.	3 31 30.06	9 45.805	3 28 44.255	08	69
22	E.	3 31 44.76	2 45.859	3. 28 58.901	67	68
23	W.	3 31 34.13	2 45.908	3. 28 48.222	63	64
24	E.	3 31 45.13	2 45 971	3.28 59.159	61	61
25	W.	8 31 28.76	2 46.028	3: 28 42.732	65	65
26	E.	3 31 47.13	2 46.081	3. 29 1.049	68	69
				Mean	64.33	6175

SERPENTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 6 55 S.

	1		0 , ,,			-	
ebruary.	15	w.	0.53 13.74	2 12.086	0 4 4	0	0
••••	17	E.	6 63 33.49	2 12.304	6 51 1.654 6 51 21.186	.61	61
	18	w.	6 53 16.37	2 12,417		66	66
	20	w.	6 53 17.54	2 12,605	6 51 3.953 6 51 4.935	65 72	65 72
	21	E.	6 53 33,12	2 12.697	6 51 20.423	67	67
	22	W.	6 53 18.24	2 12.780	6 51 5.460	65	66
	23	E.	6 53 34.37	2 12 865	6-51 21,505	64	64
	21	w.	6 - 53 16.74	2 12.950	6 51 3.790	61	. 61
	25	E.	6 53 35.74	2 13.028	6. 51 22.712	65	65
	26	W.	6 53 15.87	2 13.102	6 51 2 768	68	69
	28	E .	6 53 33 33	2 13.249	6 51 20.081	68	68
March	1.	E.	6 53 34.67	2 13.315	6 51 21.355	68	68
,	2	W.	6 53 15.37	2 13.371	6-51 1.999	68	68
	3	E.	6 53 33.74	2 13.425	6 51 20.315	67	67
	4	W. ,	6 53 18.37	2 13.472	6- 51 4.898	66	66
	5	B	6.53 36.87	2 13.514	S 51 23.356	66 .	66
				1	Mean	66 06	66.19

SERPENTIS.

Neurest point on the Limb, 2 5 S.

1815.		Corrections.	Correct	ا الالا	Lower.
Month.	Ce. Observed Zenith distance.	i	Zenith distance.	Upper.	Donois
17	W. 2 45.74 E. 2 3 1.87 W. 2 2 46.87 E. 2 3 1.24 W. 2 2 46.84 E. 2 3 1.87 W. 2 3 2.67 W. 2 3 46.74 E. 2 3 46.74 E. 2 3 4.67 W. 2 3 4.67 U. 2 4.67	2 6 624 2 6 666 2 6 707	40.534 56.242 41:136 55.402 40.816 2 0.55.861 2 0.41.149 2 0.56.503 2 0.42.501 2 0.56.503 2 0.42.501 2 0.56.503 2 0.42.501 2 0.56.503 2 0.42.501 3 0.58.152 3 7.616 5 4.204 2 3 8.533 2 5 4.192	60 66 64 66 71 69 65 63 61 64 69 68 67 66 66	

· SERPENTIS.

Nearest point on the Limb, 1 45 3.

March 1 E. 1 46 53 E. 1 47 53 E. 1 47 3	1 58.177 1 58.405 1 58.624 1 58.713 1 58.801 1 58.885 1 58.965 1 59.038 1 59.038 1 59.193 1 44 51.615 1 45 6.375 1 44 51.615 1 45 6.592 1 45 6.592 1 45 6.592 1 45 6.592 1 45 6.592 1 45 7.869 1 59.394 1 45 7.869 1 44 53.692 1 45 6.687 1 44 53.692 1 45 6.687 1 44 53.692 1 45 6.687 1 44 53.692 1 45 6.687 1 44 53.692 1 45 7.869 1 49.438 1 49.438	68 68 67 66	60 60 65 66 72 69 66 63 61 64 70 68 68 68 67 66
	46 1 1 195,307	ea 65.65	65.82

ON THE MERIDIAN,



• HERCULIS

Nearest point on the Limb, 1 30 N.

1815.			Observed		'Correct	Thermo	meters.	
Month		Face.	Zenith Distances.	Corrections.	Zenith Distances.	Upper.	Lower	
P-1	Sebruary 17 E.		0 7.610	+	0	0	0	
r-euruary	19	w.	1 32 7.6 °O 1 32 19.560	1 39.973	1 33 47·583 1 33 59.757	66	66 66	
	20	Е.	1 32 7.130	1 40.197	1 35 59.757	71	71	
	21	w.	1 32~19.810	1 40.386	1 34 0.196	68	68	
	22	E.	1 32 7.260	1 40,480	1.33 47.740	65:	66	
	23	w.	1 32 19.890	1 40:572	1 34 0.462	63	63	
	24	E.	1 32 4 960	1 40,658	1 33 45 618	60	60	
	25-	w.	1 32 19,460	1 40,741	1 34 0.201	63	63	
	26	E.	1 32 5 130	1 40,829	1 33 45.950	69 (70	
	28	W.	1 32 21 76	1 40.957	1 34 2.717	67	67	
March	1	E.	1 32 6.16	1 41,030	1 33 47.190	68	68	
	2	w.]	1 32 22.46	1 41,081	1 34 23.341	66	66	
	3	E. 1	1 32 5.46	1 41.126	1 33 46.586	67	67	
i	4	w.	1 32 21.89	1 41.170	1 34 3.060	66	66	
!	5	E.	1 32 4,76	1 41.210	1 83 45.076	65	` 6 5	
					Ménd.		66.1	

orrected for refraction, equation of the sectorial tube, and the means runs of the micrometer.

ZENITH DISTANCE PUNNAE STATION..

"LEONIS:

	1809.	Left	Arc.	1809.	1	light	Arc.	Meun.			
	Month.	,		Month.							
•	April 13 16 18 20 24 26 28 30 Mag 3	2, 36	56.561 53.928 54.210 54.116 54.807 55.074 56.101 55.747 56.972 53.570	April 12 14 17 19 23 25 27 29 May 2 5	9	36	45 100 43 520 43 635 43.161 47.730 43.876 43.523 42.799 42.406 41 365 44.646	Refraction, &c.		49.369 2.561 51 925	
	Mean	3, 6	55.109	Mean	2	36	43.615				

REGULUS.

April 13 16.	4		26.359 23.581	April	19 14 17	4	45	16.280 14.181 14.017	Refraction, &c.	4	45	19.176 4.803
18			26.093		20			12.976	Zenith distance,	4	45	23,979
26			24.117		25 27			14.799	1			
28 30			23.855		29			11.798				
May 3			26 058	M•y	2			12.1·9 12.101				
6			24 878 25.759		7			13.8.7				
Mean	4	45	24.892	M	ean	4	45	13.159				

9 LEONIS.

1809		Left Arc		180	9.		Righ	t Arc.		Mean	.	1	
Mont	h.				Mon h			_				,	
April May	18 20 24 26 29 3 5	8	19	60.718 60.544 60.544 60.197 67.997 67.712 62.486 63.555 61.762	April May	17 19 23 25 28 30 4	8·	19	49:304 52.501 47.269 46.591 48.306 48.139 48.621 48.971	Refraction,		19 +	54.97: 8.240 3.213
. 1	lenn	· 8	20	1.246	N	Mean	8	19	48 700	ţ			

B LEONIS:

$\mathbf{A}_{P}\mathbf{H}$	13	7	30.	14.001	Apı	11 1.2	7	* 29	57.588	•	7	3	. 1 7-1
•	16			8 609	•	11			60.404	Refraction,	&c.		+ 7.58B
	18			6.505		17			55.649	,			
	20			7.606		19"			59.328	Zenith Dist.	7	30	11.608
	24			8.963		23			59.566				
	26			9.261		25			60.364				
	29			11.954		28			59.063				
May	2			11758		30			55.848				
				10.466	M _* y	5			56.623				
				11 270	-	7			57.779				
3	Mean	7	30	9,819		Mean	7	49	58.921				
,	41 = 11	,	,,	04.110		'41 C. W. 1. 1	,	49	10, 221				

VIRGINIS.

Aprii	18 20	3	5 i	7.952	April	19 23	.	50		defraction,	& c.	٠ +	3.888
	25 28			6.014 8.311		26 29			56.410	Zeni h Dist.	3	51	6.083
	30			9.114 7.938	May	3 5			57.601 56.328				
May.	4 6			6.586		7			57.955				
N	ean	3	51	7.440	N	lean	3	50	56 951				

³ SERPENTIS.

April	18 20	3	2 29.029 27.318	April	19	2		Refraction,	&c.	+	2.71
	21	_	27.206		25		17 575				3
	26	-	26.417		27		17.319	Z mith Dist.	3	2	25.613
	28		29.316		29		17.051				
	3.)		29.302	May	3		15.506				
M a y	5 7		28.476 28.434	-	6		16.579				
r	lean	3′	9 - 48, 191	M	โคลก	9	17 237.				

· SERPENTIS.

1809.				1809.		Right Arc.		Meau.				
Month.	Left Arei		Monib.					8 8 39 3				
April 18		43 622 43 781 46 977	April	19 23 25 27	8	8	34,013 31,553 33,009 34,067 32,498	Refraction, Zenith Dist.		$\frac{479}{847.2}$		
. 2:	3	46.160 46.584 45.828	May	3 7	_		33,583 35 026					
Men	8 5	8 45 281	1,	Mean	8	. 8	33,393	1	_			

ZENITH DISTANCES AT NAMTHABAD.

· LEONIS.

18 4 19 20.169 4 4 4 4 5 4 5 5 5 5	
April 20 20,499 21 19,974 22 25 31,531 24 21,088 21,199 29 30,883 28 21,312 29 21,312	4.271 4.271 30.079
Mean 4 19 30 731 Mean 4 19 20.886	

REGULUS.

7	L		KEGU		•		
	90 1	2 11 3 630	Ayrıı 18 21		137 571 Lefraction, &c	. +	57.2/C 2.207
	April 20 22 24 26 28	3.898 3.369 4.140 3.017	25 25 27 29	49 49	.703 .938 Zenith Dist. .939 .203	2 10	59,483
	Mean	2 .11 3 804	Mean	2 10 50	749		
-			* 50	DITA			

LEONIS.

LEC	JM10.
April 18 5 43 29.148 April 20 21 29.384 23 30.146 24 25 28.371 28 27 29 27.944 Mean 5 43 29.256 Mean	43 93,135
21 23 25 25 27 29 27 29 20 21 21 22 24 25 26 27 28 30.541 28 30.541 28 30.541 28 30.541 29 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30	16.459 Zenith Dist. 5 43 243 17.409 17.110

ON THE MERIDIAN.

⁹ LEONIS.

	Month.		Left Arc.			Month.		light	Arc.	Meau.					
April	21 25 25 27 29	0 1	23	46 701 46.386 49.197 46.003 46.194 43.990	A pril	20 22 24 25 28 30	0 1	23	35.794 34.478 34.436 36.109 35.409 34.718	Refraction, &c.	•	23 + 23	40.785 1.253 42.038		
	Mean	1	23	45.412	N	lean	1	23	35.157	•! 	_				

LEONIS.

İ	April 18 21 23	0 33	52 052 55.135 56.688 55.235	April	20 22 24	0	33	40.708	Refraction, &c.	0	33 +	48.758 0.416
	25 27 29		55.235 55.288 55.323	0	26 28 30	-		44.051 41.831	Zenith Distances,		3 5 	49.174
	Mean	0 33	54.953	М	rs.	0	23	42.563				1

VIRGINIS.

1	April May	26 29	3	5	18 485 15 677 16,595	April 25 27 30	3	6	4.120 7.328 8.531	Refraction, &c.	3	5 11.7 - 2.9	60
	•	ean	3	5	16.919	Mean	3	5		Zenith Dist.		5 14.7	

BOOTIS.

1	May 2 4 7 9	4	16	54.418 54.384 55.662 55.857	May 3 5 8 12	4	16	45.389	Refraction, &c.	4	16 +	50.218 4.242 54.460
	Mean	4	16	55,088	Mean	4	16	45.348				—

ARCTURUS.

May 2 4 6 8 15		18.194 16.885 16.679 17.237 14.957	May			7.416 6.721 6.268 5.946	Refraction, &c.	<u>ا</u>	11.668 5.112 16.777	
Mean	6	16.790	Mean	5	6	6.540				
			1	B 6						

MEASUREMENT OF AN ARC

BOOTIS.

1811.	Left Arc.	1811. Month.	Right A	rc.	Mean.				
Month. May 3	0 31 39.158	May 4	2		Refraction, &c.	0 31 35.19 + 0.67			
5 8 Mean	41.814 39.899 0 31 40 290			9.541	Zenith Distance,	0 31 35.86			

SERPENTIS.

M. 1 3 53 57.9	64 May 3	3 8	53	48.902 46.679	Refraction, &c.	3	53 +	52.387 3.908
Way 1 56.5 4 58.0 7 58.7	87 9			48 000	Zenith Distance,	3	53	56 290
Mcan 3 53 56.9	OS Mean	3	53	47 857				

B SERPENTIS.

May 3 5 8	0 56 35.097 36.648 36.908	May 1 4 7 9		00 047	Refraction, &c.	0	56 + 56	31.745 0.901 32.646
15 Mean	35.952 0 56 36.151	Mean	0 56	27.338				

" SERPENTIS.

May 3 1 12 25.342 May 1 1 12 18.786 19.549 Refraction, &c. 1 15 26.916 9 17.407 Zenith Distance, 1 Mean 1 12 18.339	12 22.613 + 1.105

HERCULIS.

ZENITH DISTANCES AT DAUMERGIDDA.

LEÓNIS.

181	5.		Left	Arc.	18.	5.		Righ	t Arc.	M	Mean.		,
Mont	h.				Mont	h.							
Feb.	15 17 19 23 25 27	7	16	51.860 54.289 51.485 54.364 54.525 54.397	Feb.	14 16 18 22 24 26	7	16	40.690 41.017 36.178 37.269 34.981		7	16 +	45 874 7.359 53.233
M erch	4 Tean	7	16	53.877 55.057	March M	28 3 5 ean	7	16	36.454 38 061 37.724 38.016		***		

REGULUS-

Feb. 15	6	ช	23.502 21.199	Feb.	14	5	8		Refraction, &c.	5	8+	16.466 5.116
19 24			22 524 23.977		18				Zenith Distance,	5	8	21.582
24 26			24.370 22.861		25 27			8 165 · 8.856				
March 4			22.721	March	5			8.529 8.353				
Mean	5	8	23.081	<u>M</u>	ean	5	8	9.851				

z LEONIS.

Feb.	14	2	46	6.718 4.179	Feb.	15 17		45		Refraction, &c.		46 +	0.198
	18 22 25			6.631 6.117 2.801		21 24 26			53.151 54.532 52:090	Zenith Distance,	2	46	3,056
March	27 2			8.923 7.283 6.970	March	28 3 5			53.676 54.731 53.617				
y	lean	2	46	6.689	M	ean	2	45	53.707				

MEASUREMENT OF AN ARC

· LEONIS.

1815.					1815.		R	ight	Arc.	Mean	;		
Month.	Month.		Left Arc.		Month.					-			
Feb:	15	0	33	43.854	Feb.	14	0	33	32.625 31.829	Refraction, &c.		33 +	39.447
	17 19 23 25 27		٠	45.060 45.903 47.038 47.929 46.059	March	18 22 24 26			31.052 33.055 32.098	Zenith Distance,	ī	33	40.92
March	4	_		45.999		5 Mean	1	33	32.046				

LEONIS.

	» Lr		10.		-	-0 (V)U
15 9 93 39 086	Feb. 14	2 93	24.756 24.802	Refraction, &c.	+	32.008 2.316
Feb. 18 38.120 18 38.428 21 38.428 23 41.347 25 40.274 27 38.591 Marsh 4 41.054	16 19 22 24 26 March 3		25.959 25.917 23.920 23.925 22.911 23.567	Zenith Distance,	2 23	34,324
Mean 2 23 39.547	Mean	2 23	24.470			

VIRGINIS.

	VIICO1.			
Feb. 3 6 2 37.125	Feb. 1 4 6 8 13 15 18 Mean 6	24.002 23.410 19.555 23.736 22.946 22.107	Refraction, &c,	2 30.487 + 6.083 z 30.8/0
	$n \cap n$	TIC		

BOOTIS.

Feb, 1 1 19 34 266 33.331 35.531 85.292 14 25.018 16 24.162 21.265	Feb, 2 3 5 7 9 13 15	1 19 24.380 21.994 21.224 21.440 23.626 21.571 22.590 22.820	Refraction, &c., + 1.188 Zenith Dist. 1 19 29.335
Mean 1 19 33.838	Mean	1 19 22,456	

ON THE MERIDIAN.

ARCTURUS.

181	·]		Left	Arc.	1815.			Right Arc.		Meau,
Mon	th.				Month.					0
_		0	,	44	·;		0	,	"	0 , ,,
Jan.	31	2	8	54.193	Feb.	2 1	2	8	44.210	2 8 49.436
Feb.	1			85.953		3			40.333	Refraction, &c. + 2.066
	4			56.460		5			43.216	
	6			56 705		7			43.315	Zenith Dist. 2 8 51.509
	8			54.550		9			42.410	
	11			55,106		12			43.818	
	13 1			56,035		14			46.488	
	15			57.572		16			45.148	
	17			65.713		18			42.652	
	19	•		51 334		1			•	
,	Mean	2	8	55 362		lean	9	8	43.510	

BOOTIS.

rev. 14 17 19 22 24 26	\$ 25 57.441 59 656 56 357 58,001 59 59 61:049	Feb. 13 15 18 21 23 25	3 28 46 5 41.8 43.0 41.2 48,2 42.7	Refraction, &c.	28 51.602 + 3.448 23 55 050
Mean	3 28 58 761	Mean	3 98 44.4	143	

3 SERPENTIS.

Feb. 17 21 22 25 28 March 1 3 5	6 51 21.186 20.423 21.505 22.712 20.081 21.355 20.315 23.356	Feb. 15 18 20 22 24 26 March 2 Mean	6 51 1.654 8.953 4.935 5.460 2.790 2.768 1.999 4.898	6 51 12 524. Refraction, &c. + 7.012 Zenith Dist. 6 51 19.536
---------------------------------	---	-------------------------------------	---	---

* SERPENTIS.

Feb. 17	2	0	56.242	Feb.	15	2	0	40 334		2	0	48.097
1.9	•	٠	. 55 402		18			41.136	Refraction, &	c	+	2.190
21			55.861		20			40.815				
23			56.503		22			41.149	Zenith Dist.	2	0	50.287
25			56.558		24			42.501				
28			58.152		26			40 353				
March			54 904	March	2			37.616				
			54.192		4			38 533				
Mean	2	0	55.889	Me	ean	2	0	40,305				
					C	C						

" SERPENTIS.

1815.			181.5.	_ 1	ight .	Kic.	Mean.
Month.	Left A	rc.	Mouth.				0, "
14 17 20 22 24 26 March 1	45	8 119 7.355 5.417 6 375 6.592 6 687 7 569 4 277 5.893		5 1 10 11 23 25 28 2 4	44	50 153 50.886 51.829 51.964 51.645 53.308 53.692 51.735	R fraction, &c. + 1.05 Z nith Dis'. 1 45 0.86
5 Mean	1 45	6 513	M	nan -	44	51.901	

HERCULIS.

						111	-								1
\	9 9	,	1	33	69.757 60.193 60.462 60.201 62.7 7 63.341 63.060	Feb.	17 20 22 21 26 1 3	1	33	A= 7.10	Zenith Dist	& -	33 + 33	54.074 1.395 55.469	
	M	•"	<u>-</u>	3 -	1.391	1	Masn	1	33	46.758					_

12. AMPLITUDE OF THE ARC

Between Namthabad and Daumergidda.

	Amplitude.				
Stars:	Namthabad.	Daum-rgidda.			
Leonis, Regulus, Leonis, Leonis, Leonis, Virginia, Rootis, Arcturus, Serpentis, Serpentis, Y Supertis, Y Supertis,	4 19 30 079 S. 2 10 59 183 S. 5 43 28 704 N. 1 23 42 038 N. 0 33 49 174 N. 3 5 14 750 S. 4 16 54 46 N. 5 6 16.777 N. 0 31 35.868 S. 3 53 56.29 S. 0 56 32.646 N. 1 12 23.718 N. 4 31 19.103 N.	7 16 51.233 S. 5 8 21.5×2 S. 2 46 3.036 N 1 33 40.925 S. 2 23 34.324 S. 6 2 36.57 S. 1 19 29.335 N 2 8 51 502 N. 3 28 55 050 S. 6 51 19.536 S. 2 0 50.287 S. 1 45 0.865 S. 1 33 55.469 S.	h 61 61		

13. AMPLITUDE OF THE ARC

Between Punnae and Daumergidda, by seven corresponding Stars:

Stara.				Zeu	A 3							
	DIRFS.		P	IDDAC.	Ī	Daumergidda.				Amplitude.		
•	Leonis, Regulus,	0 2 4	36 45	51.926 23.979		o 7 5		53.233 21.582	s. s	0	53	45.159 45.561
β.	Leonis,	8 7 3	20 30 51	3 2 3 11 608 6.083	N.	1 2 6	33 23 2	40.925 34.324 36 570	S. S. S.			44.138 45.932 42.653
8	Serpentis,	3	2	25.643 47.269	- 1	6	51 45	19 536 0.86 5	S. S.			45.179 48.134
								Men	n.	9	53	45.257

14. Celestial Arc between the parallels of Putchapolliam

and Namthabad, (see A. R. Vol. 12.350)	•	•	4 6 11.28
Terestrial Arc, (see Art. 9, of the present	paper,)	•	1489131.2
Mean length of one degree,		•	60487.56
Latitude of the middle point,	-	•	13 2.55

Celestial Arc between the parallels of Namthabad and

Daumergidda,	•	•	•	-	•	2 57 23.32
Terestrial Arc,	•	-		-	•	1073428.2
Mean length of o	ne degree,	,	•	•	× į	60512.78
Latitude of the m	iddle poir	ıt,	•	•	4	16 34 42

15. It appears by the comparison of the celestial with

the terestrial arcs, that the degree due to latitude 93444 is 6047283 fathoms, that due to latitude 13255 is 60487.56 fathoms. And that due to latitude 163442 is 60512.78 fathoms.

Now in order to obtain a general mean for the ratio of the polar axis, to the equatorial diameter of the earth, let each of these be taken separately, first, with the French measure; then with the English, and lastly with the Swedish, which will produce three means; from which three, the general mean is had. If the formula in page 93, Asiatick Researches, Vol. 12th, be referred to, and the respective latitudes, and the degrees due to them, be substituted, we shall have the results as follows;

First, with the French measurement in latitude 47 24. $\frac{1}{1 + e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\sin^2(47^{\circ} 24^{\circ} 4^{\circ})} - \cos^2(47^{\circ} 24^{\circ} 0^{\circ}) \cdot \left(\frac{60795}{60472.83}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}}{\frac{1}{1 + e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\sin^2(47^{\circ} 24^{\circ} 0^{\circ})} \cdot \left(\frac{60795}{60472.83}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} - \sin^2(9^{\circ} 34^{\circ} 44^{\circ})}}} 1$ $1^{-4} \frac{\sqrt{\cos^2(13^9-2^7.55^7) - \cos^2(47^9.24^7.0^7) \cdot \left(\frac{6079.5}{00487.56}\right)^{\frac{7}{3}}}}$ 1+ ρ $\sqrt{\sin^2(47^\circ 24' 6'') \cdot \left(\frac{60795.0}{60487.56}\right)^2}$ -Sin. 2 (13° 2' 55") 1.0034536 $\sqrt[4]{\cos^2(16^\circ 34^\circ 42^\circ)} - \cos^2(47^\circ 24^\circ 0)^\circ \cdot \left(\frac{60795}{60.512.78}\right)^{\frac{7}{2}}$ 1+e / Sin. 2 (47° 24' 0"). (60795.) -Sin. 2 (16° 34' 42") 1.0033787 The Mean of which is 1.0031295 Second, with the English, in latitude 2 20, $\sqrt{C_{08,2}(9^{\circ} 34' 4'') - C_{08}^{2}(52^{\circ} 2' 20'') \cdot \left(\frac{60820}{60472.83}\right)^{2}}$ $1+e^{-\sqrt{\sin^2(52^\circ-2',24'')}\cdot\left(\frac{60820}{60472.83}\right)^2}$ -Sin, 2 (9° 34' 44'') 1.0032218 $\sqrt{\frac{60820}{60487.56}}$ Cos 2 (52° 2' 20") $-\frac{60820}{60487.56}$ 1+6 \$\sin_2^2 (52° 2' 20"). \(\begin{pmatrix} \frac{60820}{60487.66} \Big)^2 -\sin_2^2 (14° 2'.55") \end{pmatrix} $1 \qquad \sqrt{\frac{\cos^2(16^\circ 34^\circ 42^{\circ\prime}) - \cos^2(52^\circ 2^{\circ} 20^{\circ\prime}) \cdot \left(\frac{6^{\circ}820}{60512.78}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ 1+6 V Sin.2 (26° 2' 20") . (50820.)2 -Sin.2 (16° 34' 42") 1.0031420

The Mean of which is	1.0031913
1 Cos. (9° 54' 44") — Cos. 2 (66° 20' 12") . (60955.)}
$\frac{1+\sigma}{1+\sigma} = \sqrt{\sin^2(66^\circ 20^\circ 12^{\circ\prime\prime}) \cdot \left(\frac{60955}{60472.83}\right)^2} - \sin^2(9^\circ 34^\circ 44^{\circ\prime\prime})$	
1 V _{Gos.2} (13° 2° 55") — Cos.2 (66° 20° 12" . (50955 60487.56) 1
$1+e^{-\sqrt{\sin^2(66^\circ 20^\circ 12^\circ)} \cdot \left(\frac{60955}{60487 \ b6}\right)^{\frac{3}{3}}} - \sin^2(13^\circ 2^\circ 55^\circ)}$	
1 V Cos. 2 (16° 34' 42") — Cos. 2 (66° 20' 12") . (60956.) 1 1
1+e $\sqrt{\sin^2(66^\circ 20' 12'')} \cdot \left(\frac{60.955}{60512.78}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}} - \sin^2(16^\circ 34' 42'')$	1.0032102
The Mean of which is	1
Hence by comparing these three measure-	1.0032479
ments in India, with the French, gives -	1.0034295
With the English, gives	1.0031913
With the Swedish, gives	1 1.0032479
And the general mean is	1
Which gives the compression $\frac{1}{303.99}$ or $\frac{1}{304}$	- nearly.

16. All this is f pposing the earth to be an ellipsoid, but, it will be proper to determine that question from the Indian measurements alone without having recourse to any other. In order to which, let x, x, x, x, &c. be the measures of contiguous degrees on the meridian, whose

respective latitudes are l, l, l, &c. Then it is known that if that meridian of the earth be an ellipse, $\frac{\binom{2}{X} - \binom{1}{X}}{3 \times (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)}$ will express the compression, let the ratio of the polar to the equatorial diameter be

what it will. Hence $\frac{X - X}{X - X}$ is also equal the same com- $\frac{\binom{1}{X} - \binom{2}{X}}{3 \times \binom{\sin^2 t}{t} - \sin^2 t}$

And by reduction: $X = X \times (X - X)$. $\begin{cases} \sin^{2} (1) & \sin^{2} (1) - \sin^{2} (1) \\ & (1) & (2) \\ & (3) & (2) - \sin^{2} (1) \end{cases}$

And also $X = X + (X - X) \cdot \begin{cases} \sin^2 l - \sin^2 l \end{cases}$ $\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l \end{cases}$

$$\begin{array}{c}
(5) & (1) & (2) & (1) \\
X = X + (X - X) \cdot \begin{cases}
\frac{(5)}{\sin^2 l} - \sin^2 l \\
\frac{(2)}{\sin^2 l} - \sin^2 l
\end{cases}$$

And therefore X = X + (X - X). $\begin{cases} \sin^{2} l - \sin^{2} l \\ \sin^{2} l - \sin^{2} l \end{cases}$

Also by descending (3) (1) (2) (1) (3) (3) (4) (3) (4) (5) (5) (1) (6) (1) (7) (1) (8) (1) (1) (1) (2) (1) (3) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (5) (5) (6) (6) (7) (7) (7) (8) (1) (1) (1) (2) (1) (2) (1) (3) (4)

So that if X = X be expressed by d, we shall have

$$\begin{cases} (1) & (1) \\ X = X + o \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} (2) & (1) \\ X = X + d \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
(3) & (1) \\
X = X + d \\
& \\
\frac{(3)}{1 - \sin^4 l} \\
\frac{(2)}{1 - \sin^4 l}
\end{array}$$
Sin.² $l - \sin^2 l$

$$\begin{array}{c}
(4) \\
X = X + d \\
\begin{cases}
\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l \\
\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l
\end{cases}
\end{aligned}$$
&c.

To
$$X = X + d \begin{cases} \frac{(n)}{\sin^2 l} - \sin^2 l \\ \frac{(n)}{\sin^2 l} - \sin^2 l \end{cases}$$

where n denotes the number of degrees, and Z the increment to the 1st degree. Here it is evident that d is the only unknown quantity to be determined, since $X + X + X \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot X = A$ the terrestrial measure of an arc of n complete degrees, X being the measure of the first degree in latitude I by observation.

Hence
$$A = n \times + d \ (o + 1 + \frac{(\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)}{(\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)} \cdot \frac{(\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)}{(\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)}$$

And
$$d = \frac{(A - n \times 1) \cdot (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)}{(\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l) + (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l) \cdot (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)}$$

whence d becomes a known quantity; and fince (Sin. 2 1 — Sin. 2 1)

is a constant and known quantity, if _______be denoted by 2,

we shall have the order of the contiguous degrees as sollows:

degrees are descending from x in latitude /, When the

then let X be the next lower degree in lat. l; X the next for lat. l &c.

then
$$\frac{\binom{1}{X} - \binom{-1}{X}}{3 \times (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)} = \frac{\binom{1}{X} - \binom{-2}{X}}{3 \times (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)}$$

And therefore X = X - (X - X). $\begin{cases} \frac{(1)}{\sin^2 t} & \frac{(-2)}{t} \\ \frac{(1)}{\sin^2 t} & \frac{(-1)}{t} \end{cases}$

Or putting X - X = d we shall have,

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
X &= X & - \rho \\
X &= X & - \lambda \\
X &= X & d
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
X & = X & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & X & & \\
X & = X & & & \\
X & = X & & & \\
X & & & \\
X & & & \\
X & & \\
X & & & \\
X & & & \\
X $

to X = X - d
$$\begin{cases} \sin^{(1)} (-n) \\ \sin^{(1)} (-1) \\ \sin^{(1)} (-1) \\ \sin^{(1)} (-1) \end{cases}$$
 which reduced.

To apply the first formula to the present measurement, it will be necessary to have a terrestrial arcito correspond with a celestial one of complete degrees, and the first degree determined by observation. If we begin with the degree in latitude 9 34 44, which is 60472.83 factors as the mean degree deduced from an arc of 2 50 10.54 where the corresponding terrestrial arc, or the distance between Punnae station, and that at Putchapolliam is 171516.75.

The half of which is the distance of the middle point of the degree from Putchapolium = - 85758.375

To which add half-the degree fouth, or - 30236:415.

The latitude of whose commencement is 9 34 43.6 minus
30 or 9 4 43,6 the latitude of the fouth extremity of an
are of complete degrees. Now the terrefirial are between
Putchapolham and Namthabadis
Between Namthabad and Daumergidda is 178904 700
To which add the above 5
Their sum is the terestrial arc between 9 4 43.6 and
Daumergidda,
The latitude of Daumergidda by adding the arc between
Namthabad and Daumergidda by 13 Stars, or (2 57 23.32)
to the latitude of Namthabad (*15 6 0.21) is - 18 3 23.53
The same latitude by adding the whole are between
Punnae and Daumergidda by seven corresponding Stars,
19 53 45.25) to the latitude of Punnae (8 9 38 39 is 18 3 23.64
Gives the mean or correct latitude of Daumergidda, 18 3 23 58
Hence from 18 3 23.58
Subtract 9 4 43.66
Difference or arc 8 58 39.92 whose measure is 543088.024
To which add 1 20.08 whose measure is . 1345 184
Gives the number n)
of complete degrees 9 o o whose measure (A) is 544433 208

The latitude of Namshabad as given in my last paper (A.R. Vol. 12,) was 16 6 0.6, but the latitude here given is considered more correct, and is had by adding the celestial are between Putche pollium and Namthabad, to the latitude of Putchapollium, which last is obtained by adding the are hetween Punnae and Putchapollium to the latitude of Punnae station.

Now the measure of the first degree or X is 60472 83 fathoms and n = 9. Therefore n : X = 544255.47 which subtracted from A or X = 544255.47 which subtracted from A or X = 544233.208 gives 177.74 = A - n : A - n

TABLE I.

	Degree in Fathems.	Latit	rde.
X = X + 0	60472.83	9 34	. 44
$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} + d$	60476.89	10 34	44
$X = X + Q (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l) \dots$	60481.34	11 34	44
$X = X + Q (Sin.^2 l - Sin.^2 l)$	60486.16	12 34	44
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	60491.36	13. 34	44
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	60496.92	14 34	44
$X = X + Q (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l) \dots$			
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	60509.12	16 34	44
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	60515.74	17 : 34 :	3 44
4 4	544433.21 = 4	;	

According to this table the degree in latitude 16 34 44 is 60509.12 and the mean degree for latitude 16 34 42 as deduced from the arc between Namthabad and Daumergidda is 60512.78 fathoms, which exceeds the computed one only 3.66 fathoms. It may however be necessary to examine what compression will be brought out by using

60472.83 for X, for
$$\frac{\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ X - X \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} X - X \end{pmatrix}} = \frac{4.062225}{\begin{pmatrix} 4.062225 \end{pmatrix}} = \frac{1}{3 \times 60472.83 \times 0.06014}$$

nearly, which differs confiderably from that given by the general mean.

Is we suppose to be the true compression, let it be determined what the value of X ought to be to bring it out, and by that means detect the errors of the observed degrees X, and that in 16 34 42, which last may be compared with X.—Put A = 544433.21, a = $(\sin^{(2)}_{\bullet} l - \sin^{(1)}_{\bullet} l) = ,006014, b = (\sin^{(2)}_{\bullet} l - \sin^{(1)}_{\bullet} l) + .$: $(\sin^{(0)}_{\bullet} l - \sin^{(0)}_{\bullet} l) + .$: $(\sin^{(0)}_{\bullet} l - \cos^{(0)}_{\bullet} l) + .$ Sin. $I_i = .263137$. Then fince $d = \frac{(x - nX) \cdot a}{X} = \frac{(2)}{X} = \frac{(1)}{X}$; $= \frac{A - nX}{3bX} = \frac{1}{304 \cdot A}$ from which is obtained $(X) = \frac{304 \cdot A}{3b \times 304}$ 60475.13 whence $d = \frac{(A - n \cdot X) \cdot ...,006014}{263137} = 3.58911$, and $Q = \frac{d}{...006014}$ = 596.79. From these, the following table has been computed, from which it appears that the first degree by measurement is 2, 3 fathoms in descet, and that in latitude 16 34 42 is 5.59 fathoms in excess, both quantities too small to affect the elliptic hypothesis; the greatest being less than ; of a second on the earth's surface.

TABLE II.

(1) (17 X = X + 0	60475.13	9 34 44
$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} + d \cdots$		
$\begin{array}{c} (3) & (1) \\ X = X + Q \left(\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l \right) \end{array}$	60482.55	11 34 44/
$\begin{array}{l} (4) & (1) \\ X = X \leftrightarrow Q (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l), \end{array}$	60486.91	12 34 44.
$X = X + Q \times \sin^2 l - \sin^2 l \dots$	60491.5	13 34 44
$\begin{array}{c} (6) & (1) \\ X = X + Q \left(\sin^2 A - \sin^2 A \right) \end{array}$. 60496.42	14/34 44
$\begin{array}{c} (7) & (1) \\ X = X + Q \left(\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l \right) \end{array} $. 60501.65	15 34 44
(8) (1) (8) (1) (1) $X = X + Q(\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l)$. 60507.19	18731 44
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	·60513 04	17 34 44
	£44493 91 —	

54 1433.21 = A.

From inspecting these two tables, it appears that the degree in latitude 13 34 44 is very nearly the same in each: the mean being 60491 4 sathoms, which certainly must be near the truth. We shall therefore adopt it in suture with the compression—for computing the general tables of degrees for every latitude from the Equator to the pole.

17. If the method be adopted which is pointed out in the 42d No. of the Edinburgh Review, where we may call X, X, X, X, X, X, the degrees for latitudes L. L+1, L+2, L+3, &c. . . . L+(n-1) Now as the increment to each fucceeding degree will always be as the fine of twice the latitude; or if m be any multiple of the fine of twice the latitude, to be determined by certain data, the increment

to each successive degree will be m. Sin. 2 latitude of the middle point of that degree, so that

$$X = X + o$$
 for latitude . (L + o)

$$X = X + o + m \cdot Sin. 2 (L + o)$$

$$X = X + 0 + m \cdot Sin \cdot 2(L + 0)$$
 $X = X + 0 + m \cdot Sin \cdot 2(L + 0)$
 $M \cdot Sin \cdot 2(L + 0)$

$$X = X + o + m \cdot Sin \cdot 2(L + o)$$
 $X = X + o + m \cdot Sin \cdot 2(L + o) - m \cdot Sin \cdot 2(L + 1)$
 $X = X + o + m \cdot Sin \cdot 2(L + o) - m \cdot Sin \cdot 2(L + 1)$

$$X = X + m$$
 (Sin. 2 (L + o)

$$X = X + m \begin{cases} \sin 2(L + o) \\ \sin 2(L + 1) \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{(4)} \\ \text{(1)} \\ \text{(2)} \\ \text{(3)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(1)} \\ \text{(3)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(1)} \\ \text{(5)} \\ \text{(1)} \\ \text{(1)} \\ \text{(1)} \\ \text{(1)} \\ \text{(2)} \\ \text{(2)} \\ \text{(2)} \\ \text{(3)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(5)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(5)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(5)} \\ \text{(4)} \\ \text{(4$$

$$X = X + m \begin{cases} \sin 2(L+1) \\ \sin 2(L+2) \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} \sin 2(L+0) \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
\text{Sin. 2} (L+0) \\
\text{Sin. 2} (L+1) \\
\text{Sin. 2} (L+1) \\
\text{Sin. 2} (L+2) & \text{&c.} \\
\text{to Sin. 2} (L+(n-2))
\end{array}$$

$$Put X + X + X + X + X \dots X = A$$

Put
$$X + X + X + X$$
. A = 12

Then $A = n X + m \{ n-1 \}$. Sin. 2 (L+1)

Then
$$A = n \times + m$$
 $\{n = 1 \}$ Sin. 2 $\{L + 3\}$ &c. $\{L + 3\}$ &c. $\{L + 3\}$

And
$$m = \frac{(1)}{n-1}$$
. Sin. 2 $(L+2) + n = 4$. Sin. 2 $(L+3) \times n = 3$.

Now m being determined, it will be easy to compute the successive degrees, for from the above arrangement it appears that

(1) (1)
$$X = X + e$$

(2) (1) $X = X + m$. Sig. 2 (L + 0)
(3) (2) $E = X + m$. Sig. 2 (L + 1)
(4) (3) $E = X + m$. Sig. 2 (L + 1)
(5) (4) $E = X + m$. Sig. 2 (L + 3) &c:
(n) (n-1) $E = X + m$. Sig. 2 (L + (n - 2))

Then in order to get the value of m; Let A = 544433.41, n = 9; L = 9 34 44; X = 60472.83. Then A = 9 X = 177.74; the numerator.

Hence $\frac{177.74}{14.5062343} = 12,2527 = m.$

Hence if the aforesaid value of m be substituted in the above, and multiplied by the sines of 19 9 28; 21 9 28; 23 9 28, &c. respectively, we shall have the degrees as follows:—

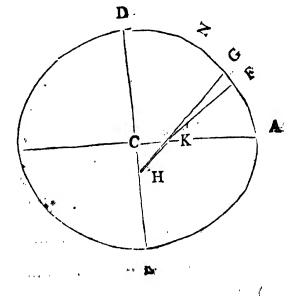
	MEASUREMENT OF Z	
12	11179 1212	11 34 44
X = 60481	27	12 34 44.
X = 60481 $X = 60480$	/ • · · ·	, 13 34 44
(5)	1	
(6)	6.89	15 34 44′
(7)	a 86	, 16 34 44
(8)	O. 01	17 34 44
$ \begin{array}{c} X - 605 \\ X = 605 \end{array} $	15.91	as in the above-table 1st, a

These results are the same very nearly as in the above-table 1st, and

m. Sin. (19 9 28,) is the same as d in the former case. 18. With respect to the compression, that nothing may be left undone to give full and entire satisfaction on that subject; I shall here add an investigation similar to that given by Professor Playfair in the 5th Vol. of the Edinburgh Philosophical Transactions, where in place of using the measures of single degrees due to particular latitudes, two measured arcs of large amplitudes are made use of, the latitudes of whose extremities are determined with great accuracy.

Let A, D, B, E, be a meridian of the earth, where A is at the equator, and D at the pole. Suppose F to be any point on that mendian, and FH the radius of curvature of the ellipse at the said n.

point. Put A C = a, DC = b, C being the center of the ellipse; and let A be equal the angle A K F, the latitude of F; or let it be the measure of the arc of latitude to rad. 1; that is, the measure of the angle A.K.F.in. parts of the rad. 1 .-HG F be an indefi-



nitely small part of the ellipse; then if A F = z, G F = z the fluxion of the arc 4 F. And of G H be drawn, then the angle GHF = A the fluxion of the arc of latitude to rad. 1.—Hence as 1: A:: FH: z = A + FH. But the radius of curvature $FH = a^{\circ} b^{\circ} (a^{\circ} - a^{\circ})$. Sin^o $A + b^{\circ}$. Sin. A) Then if c = a - b we have b = a - c, and $b^{\circ} = a - c$ $a^* - 2 a c + c^* = a^* - 2 a c$ nearly fince c is very small compared with a or b. — Hence $FH = a^3 (a - a c) \cdot (a^3 - a c \cdot Sin^3 A)$. But $(a^2 - 2a c \cdot \sin^2 A)$ expended is equal to $a(1 + \frac{3a}{2} \cdot \sin^2 A)$. Sin. A) nearly, by rejecting all the terms involving c and therefore F H = a - 2c + 3c. Sin. A, which substituted for FH, we get z = A $(a - 2c + 3c \cdot Sin \cdot A) = A(a - 2c) + A(3c \cdot Sin \cdot A)$ But Sin. $A = \frac{1 - C_{00} \cdot 2 A}{2}$ and therefore $z = A(a - 2c) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot c A$

 $\frac{3}{4} \cdot c A$. Cos. 2 A whole fluent is $z = (a - \frac{1}{4}) A - \frac{3}{4} c$. Sin. 2 $A = \frac{3}{4} c$ $A - c \begin{pmatrix} A + \frac{3}{4} A \end{pmatrix}$. Sin. 2 A) which requires no correction; and this is the measure of an arc on the meridian extending from the equator to the latitude of the point F, where A denotes the arc of latitude in parts of the rad. 1.

Let N be any other point whose arc of latitude is A. Then AN =A - c A - C A - A Sin. 2 A and hence we get FN = a(A - A) - C $\frac{A-A}{2} + \frac{3}{4} \sin 2 A - \frac{3}{4} \sin 2 A$ Fut A-A=m, $\frac{A-A}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \sin 2 A$ $A = \frac{3}{4}$. Sin. 2 A = n, and L the length of the measured arcin fathoms.

then L = ma - na. Now, if any other arc be measured whose length in fathoms is L and whose extremities are in latitudes A and A: and if $m = \frac{11}{A} - \frac{11}{A}$, also $n = \frac{A - A}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{11}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot$

Then nearly, which differs considerably from the

brought out by the general mean. However as I am not at present in possession of the account of the Swedish measurement, nor of that of the English since the operations have been extended to the northward of Clifton. I shall not depend on this single comparison but abide by the compression $\frac{1}{304}$ which for reasons already given, cannot be far from the truth.

Since then it is determined to adopt ____ as the comprellion, and 60491.4 fathoms for the measure of the degree due to latitude 13 34 44, we shall have = 604914; 1 = 13 34 44; and the fraction $\frac{1}{304}$ will give 1 + e = 1.0032896. Then let $A = 57^{\circ}$ 2957795. the arc equal radius, and a = equatorial diameter; we have $\frac{1}{2}a =$ $\frac{mA \left(C(8.2^{\frac{1}{2}}, (1+e)^{2} + (Sin.2^{\frac{1}{2}})\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{2} = 348.952.4 \text{ fathoms for the radius of}$ the equatorial circle, which divided by 57° &c. gives 60847:05 fathoms for the degree on the equator which will be of use for computing both the degrees perpendicular to the merical and the degrees of longitude. Then because the ratio of the two diameters is as 1: 1.0032896; we shall have the semi-polar axis == -= 3475419.66 fathoms. Since m is the degree for lations3486852.4 tude l, let m be the degree for any other latitude l. Then by the formula in art. 2 (Asia ick Res. vol. 12th, page 93,) we have m = $m (\cos^2 x - (1 + e) + \sin^2 l) \frac{\pi}{4}$ — and if m be at the equator where Cos. 1 Cos.2 1. (1 + e)2 + Sin.2 1)2 $m (Cor.^{\frac{1}{2}} l \cdot (1 + e)^{2} + Sin.^{\frac{1}{2}} l)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ Now if = 1, and Sin. l = 0, Then m =

60491.4 be substituted for m and 13 34 44 for l, we have m = 1

$$60491.4\left(\frac{\cos^2 \frac{13}{34} \frac{34}{44} \cdot (1.0032896)^2 + \sin^2 (\frac{13}{34} \frac{34}{44})}{(1.0032896)^2}\right) = 60458.64 \text{ for the de-}$$

gree on the meridian whosemiddle point is on the equator.—Bouguer's degree measured under the equator in South America was 62482 fathoms, which exceeds this by upwards of 23 fathoms. It is Bouguer's measurement which the French Mathematicians have used with that of

De Lambre, and they have made the compression to be 334

For the length of the quadrantal arc of the elliptic meridian, fince is the longer-diameter, $a \times 3$, 14159 &c. will be the length of the circumscribing circle, or the circle whose diameter is 6973905 fathoms,

and circumference equal 6973905 × 3.14 &c. = 21908630 fathoms.

Put
$$d = 1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2} = .00656$$
 nearly.

THEN as 1: $1 - \frac{d}{2} - \frac{3d^2}{2^4 d^2}$ &c. :: a. 3.141 &c. : a. 3.14159 &c. $(1 - \frac{d}{2^4} - \frac{3d^4}{2^4 d^2}) = 21908630 \times .998358$ equal 21872656 fathoms, the whole circumference of the elliptic meridian, whose transverse axis is the length a of the equatorial diameter, or 6073005 fathoms, and whose conjugate axis is b, equal 6950839 fathoms, the length of the polar axis. Hence

= 5468164 fathoms, the length of the quadrantal arc; which reduced to inches and divided by 10,000,000 will give 39,3708 English inches for the length of the French metre at the temperature of 62°. But the French standard is at the temperature of 32°, at which the metre by their measurement was 39,38272 English inches, which according to the rate of expansion in brass, of which the standards

are made, would, at the temperature of 629 be reduced to 39,374 English inches, which differs from the above, only ,000s inches, a quantity altogether infensible. The metre, as it is sermed by the French, is the unit of measure, and is adopted as such by most of the nations on the continent. The English, as a great commercial people, have never yet been able to fix upon a standard, though they have for ages experienced the want of it, and their aversion to receiving any thing that is foreign, as a guide, has left them at this day without any flandard in nature to which they can refer. There cannot in my opinion, be any thing more simple, than to take some fractional part of a quadrant of the earth's meridian, whose length has been fo unquestionably settled; and a fixed standard measure, call it what they please, could always be referred to the brass standard scale; and if, at the temperature of 62°, the measure of 39,371 inches be taken off, we know that to be exactly the ten millionth part of a quadrant of the meridian, which must be for ever invariable.

The unit of measure being once determined upon, it's multiples and sub-multiples may be arranged according to any system best adapted to the habitual mode of counting. The French Philosophers have chosen the decimal system altogether. The multiples, which are named from the Greek numerals, are the deci-metre, equal to ten metres; the hesto-metre, equal to ten decametres; the kilo metre, equal to ten hestometres, &c. The sub-multiples are from the Latin numerals, where the deci-metre is equal 10 of the metre; the centi-metre equal 10 the decimetre, and the mili metre equal 10 the centimetre, &c

Eor the unit of measure for capacity, the decimetre is cubed, and H h

called the *litre*, and is equal to 2 ½ English pints, wine measure. The unit of measure for weight, is the weight of a cubic centimetre of distilled water, at the temperature of 32°.

This system is extremely simple and ingenious, and promises perpetuity, whenever the old prejudice in favor of the ancient weights and measures shall be overcome; and notwithstanding its foreign origin, I shall still hope that an enlightened nation like ours, will adopt either this, or fome other one, on fimilar principles. New names feem to be absolutely necessary, and I do not know of any that are more appropriate, than those which the French mathematicians have made use of. We have no measure which corresponds with any fractional part of the quadrantal arc of the meridian. The fathom may be called the nearest, but it certainly is not so simple a fraction as the 10,000000th part, and if we were to increase the yard to correspond with the metre, we should have to increase the inch, the foot, and every other measure in the same proportion; superficial and cubic measures would have also to undergo the same change. A system, which has already been adopted by nearly all the nations on the continent, would the most eafily become univerful.

20. Elevations and Depressions, contained Arcs, Terrestrial Refractions, together with the heights above the level of the Sea, of the principal stations.

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oraegutt		Kotamerpilly		0 4	11		1	•	**	122	Corneguit .	2143
eraegutt	••••	Doodaliah	1	0 12	-	D	1	16	43	77	Doodaliah .	2005
oodallah	****	Goraegutt	1	0 3	6		ij					
oraegutt eelapilly		Sheelapilly Goraegutt	,	0 0 0 11	47	D	1	11	45	77	Sheelapilly .	2273
eesapiiry oraegutt	****	Taudmunnoor	1		13					İ		
oraeg odmunuot	••••	Goraegutt	1		34		Н	11	26	77	Taudmunt.oor	1915
odelish		Daumergidda	1		51		1			١.	l	4015
umergidda	• • • •	Dordallah	1		39		18	13	.D I	20	Daumergie'da	2015
otakodangul	• • • •	Anuantagherry			44		13	16	1 2	r	Annaninghersy	2396
nnantagherry		Kotakodangul		0 21			15		1,0	3 T	Alibania guerry	2000
pecondah	••••	Taudmunnoor	1	0 18			li	18	45	31 1	Tandmounoor	1928
ruquiannoor		Topecondah	1		27		15			21		
udmunnoor	••••	Dooda lah	1		22			9	21	22	Doodslah .	2004
oodallah		Taudmunnoor	1		52 55		1					
eelspil ly alliga hill		Sheelarilly hill			17		18	. 7	44	39	Malliga hill .	2282
alliga bill		West end of the base	1	24		Ď	13	**	,,	ı	117 1	
est end of the		Malliga hill		0 15			13	. 10	14	To .	W. end of the Bas-	1926
mergidda	****	West end of the base		10	28	D	li	. 4	46	, 	W. and of the Base	1936
makend of the	Base	Danmergidda	1		13		15	7		. 3	a and of the mas.	1830
and of the	Bare	East end of the bate) 5		E	13	. 5	4	4	East end of the Base	1083
at ori of the	Base	West end of the base	1 (0 6	31	D	11			3	TOWN OF THE MARK	

21. Tables of Degrees Meridional, Perpendicular, and Longitudinal, from the Equator to the Poles!

MERIDIONAL DEGREES.

Latitudes.	Degrees.	Latitudes.	Degrees.	Latitudes.	Degrees.
			Fathoms.		Fathoms.
	Fathoms.	ò	i	62	. 60924.5
0	60458 64	31	60818.8	63	6'933.1
. 0	50458 04	32	60575.8	61	60941.4
1	60468 8	33	60635.2	65	6.919.6
. 2	60459 8	34	60614 8	66	60957.5
3	60460.3	35	60654 5	67	6()965 3
. 4	60461.5	36	606614	68	60972.7
5	60463.2	37	606743	. 69	60979 8
6	60465-1	38	606814	70	60986 7
7	60467.5	39	60694 6	71	60993.4
8	60470.1	40	60704.8	72	60999.7
9	60473.2	41	60715,1	73	610057
10	60476.5	42	60725:4	71	61011.5
11	60480.3	43	60731.8	75	610 6 8
. 19	60484.3	44	60746 3	76	61022 ()
13	60488.7	45	60756.7	77	61026.7
. 14	60493.4	46	6: 767 2	78	61031.2
15	60498.4	47	60777.6		61035 3
16	60503.8	48	60788.0	79 80	61039.1
17	60509.4	49	60798 4		61042.5
18	60515.4	50	60808.7	81 82	61045.6
19	60521.6	51	60819 0		61048 3
. 20	60528.2	52	60829.2	83	61050 7
91	60535.0	53	60838.3	84	61052.7
22	60542.0	54	60849.3	85 86	61054 3
23	60549.4	5.5	608593	11	61055.6
24	60557 0	56	60869 0	87	61056.5
25	60564.8	57	60878.7	88	61057.1
26	60572.9	1 6	60888.2	R9	614,67
27	60581 2	5		f, 20	
28	60589.7	1 6	60900.7		1
29	60598.4	6			!
30	60607.4	11	• 1		

PERPENDICULAR DEGREES.

2 4434	Degrees.		Latitudes. Degrees.		Degrees.	
Latitudes.	Fathems. 60857 05 60857.1 60857.5 60858 0 60858.6 60859.2 60860.0 60860.9 60861.9	0 10 11 12 13 14 16 16 17	Fathoms. 60863 0 60864.3 60865.7 60867.1 60868.7 60870.4 60878.4 60878.7 60878.7	98	Fathems. 60880 4 60882 7 60885 0 60897 5 60890 0 60892 7 60891 2 10891 1	

ON THE MERIDIAN

Latitudes.	Degregs.	Latitudes.	Degrees.	Latitudes.	Degrees.
	Fathoms.		Fathoms.		Fathome.
30	60906.9	52	60981,1	7.4	61042.0
31	60910.0	53	60984.5	B 311 75	61943.8
32	60913.1	54	69987.9	76	61045.8
33	50915.2	5,5	60991.2	A 177	61047.1
34	60919.4	56	60994.4	78	61048.5
35	60922.7	87	60997.6	70	61049 9
36	60926.0	58	51000.8	80	61051.2
37	60929.3	69	61004.0	81	61052.3
88	60932.7	60	61007.0	82	61053.4
39	60936 1	61	61010.0	8,3	61054.3
40	60939.5	62	61012.9	10 1101 . 184 ()	- 61045.1
41	60943 0	63	61015.8	86	61055 7
42	60946.4	64	. 61018.6	86	61056.3
45	60919.9	65	61021.3	87	61056 7
41	60953 4	66.	61024.0	, 88	61057.0
45	60956.9	67	61026.6	89	61057.2
46	60960.4	68	61029.0	90	61057.25
47	60963 9	69	61031.4	1	
48	60967.4	70	61033.7	1 ' ' ' '	
49	60970 8	71	61035 9	K	
50	60974.3	72	61038.0	1	
51	60977.7	73	61040.1	1 1	

LONGITUDINAL DEGREES.

I atitudes	Degrees.	Latitudes.	Degrees.	Latitudes.	Degrees.
	Fathoms.		Fathoms.		Eathoms.
0	60857.05	3î	52210.0	62	28643.8
0	60847.8	32	51657.2	63	27700.6
1	60820. 2	23	81088 6	64	26748 8
2 3	60774.2	34	50504.5	66	25788.7
	607098	35	49904.9	-66	24820.7
4	60627.0	36	49290.2	67	23845.0
5	60525.8	37	48660.3	. 68	22861.9
6	60406.4	38	48015.6	69	21871.7
7	60168.6	39	47356.2	70	20874.8
8	60112.6	40	46682.4	71	10871.4
10	,59938.4	41	45994.2	72	18861.8
11	59746.1	42	45292,0	73	17846.4
12	59535.6	43	44576.0	74	16825.4
13	69307.1		43846.9	75	15799.8
14	\$9060.6	45	43:03.0	76	14708.2
15	58796-3 -	46,	42346 6	77	137,32.6
16	585141	47	41577.3	78	12892 7
17	58214.2	48	40795.1	79	11548.9
18	57896.6	49	40000.5	80	30001.4
19	57561.4	50	39193.5	81	9550.7
20	572088	51	38374.5	k. 82	8497.0
21	66838 9	52	37543.7	83	7440.6
92	56451.6	. 53	36701.4	84	6382.0
	56047.9	54	35847.8	85	.5321.4
23	55625.8	55	34983.1	86	4259.1
1	55187.5	56	34107.6	87	3195.5
25 25	54732 4	67	33221.7	88	2130.9
	54260.6	58	32325 5	89	1065.6
27	53772.4	59	31419.4	90	
28	53267.8	60	30503.5	l t	
30	52746.9	61	29578.2	1	

THE foregoing Tables of Degrees are computed from the formula given in Articles 3d, 7th and 8th, of the Appendix in page 90, Vol. 12th, Afiatick Researches, where

Affairck References, where
$$m = \text{The degree in latitude } l$$
 $p = \text{The perpendicular degree}$
 $d = \text{The degree of longitude}$

On the Equator where $p = d$

Then
$$m = m \frac{\sqrt{Cos.^2 l. (1+e)^2 + Sin.^2 l}}{\sqrt{Cos.^2 l. (1+e)^2 + Sin.^2 l}}$$

$$p = \frac{p(1+e)}{\sqrt[3]{\cos^{-1}l.(1+e)^2 + \sin^{-2}l}}$$

$$d = \frac{d(1+e)}{\sqrt{(1+e)^2 + \tan^2 3}}$$

In which (see Art. 19,) m = 604914; 1=13 34 44; p or d = 60857.05 fath. and 1 + e = 1.0032896.

22. Latitudes and Longitudes of all the great stations, and principal places deduced from the Meridianal Arc, including those formerly given; the whole being computed from the scale of degrees given in Art. 21.

NAMES OF PLACES.		Gountries and	Latitudes.	Longitud	les from
2/4m35 OF 1 DSC25.		Provinces.	Launus.	Madras obser	Greenwich.
Pallum, Christian Church		Travencore.	8 5 17	2 49 0 V	77 29 80 E
Munnacand, Christian Church		Travancore.	8 5 26.	2 45 11	77 32 19
Kuddlaputnum,		Travancore.	8 8 3.	2 56 5	77 22 25
Koetapooli, Christian Church		Tinnivelly.	8 8 53	2 39 8	77 39 22
Shevandram, pagoda	`••••	Travancore.	8 9 23	2 47 14	77 31 16
Published Of the Charles	****	l'innivelly.	8 9 26	2 37 39	77 40 51
Pillikolum, Christian Church	••••	Tinaivelly. Travancore.	8 9 44 8 10 34	25 37 48 52	77 42 53
Kotar, Christian Church Koodunkolum,	••••	Tionivelly,	8 10 36	34 31	77 29 38 77 43 69
Koolachy, Christian Church	••••	Travancore	8 10 43	0 45	77 17 45
Naugarooil, Barrack gate	••••	Travancore.	8 11 14	49 22	77 29 8
Oodagherry, Flag Staff	-111	Pavancore.	8 14 37	2 54 51	77 23 39
Arambully, hill and pagoda	***	Fravancore.	8 16 2	2 44 22	77 34 8
Munpotha	••••	l'innivelly.	8 16 8	2 40 36	77 37 54
Oodagherry hill.		Travancore.	8 16 11	2 53 57	77 24 33
Aunaepaurae,		Travancore.	8 16 53	3 0 35	77 17 55
Red hills,		l'innivelly.	8 22 40	2 22 52	77 6.5 38
Commorin Peak,		Tiunivelly.	8 23 10	2 43 53	77 34 37
Miandragherry,		Travancore.	8 23 10	2 45 50	77 32 40
Rejekamuaglum hill, (mark)	••••	Tinnivelly.	8 26 7	2 85 16	77 43 14
Trivanderam, pagoda	****	Travaucore.	8 29 3	3 18 31	76 59 59
Nagalaucherry, pagoda	***	Cionivelly.	8 29 35	2 35 42	77 42 48
Tirchundoor, pagoda	***	Tinnivelly. Finnivelly.	8 29 51 8 30 29	2 7 27	78 11 3
Kunnimapotha,	••••	Tinnivelly.	8 31 3	2 37 49 2 42 7	77 40 41
Kalcaud Fort, pagoda	4 + 0-0	Tinnivelly.	8 31 26	2 42 7 2 30 3	77 36 23 77 39 2 7
Perrandapotha, mark	4	Tinnivelly.	8 37 58	2 20 13	77 b7 b7
Streevigundum pagoda	••••	Tinnivelly.	8 41 53	2 34 48	77 43 42
Vultanand hill	4111	l'innivelly.	8 42 56	2 22 5	77 56 25
Pallamcottah, Flag Staff	****	Cinnivelly.	8 43 32	2 30 57	77 47 38
Tinnivelly, pagoda	4	Tinnivelly.	. B 43 47	2 33 51	77 44 39
Mailpottam hill, pagoda		Tinnivelly.	8 45 33	2 28 53	77 49 37
East of the base,		l'innivelly.	8 46 22	2 31 33	77 46 57
West end of the base,	4111	l'innivelly.	8 47 7	2 36 34	77 41 56
Tutacorin, Flag Staff		Tinnivelly.	8 48 3	2 16 13	78 2 17
Vullunkota hift		Tinnivelly.	.8 48 25	2 37 46	77 40 44
Taulacotpotha,		Tinnivelly.	8 49 2	2 31 47	77 46 43
Wotapuddarum, pagoda	••••	Tionivelly.	8 54 57	2 13 54	78 4 36
Kolanelloor hill,	••••	Tinnivelly.	8 55 40	2 16 17	78 2 13
Panjalamcoorchy, (gateway)	• • • •	Tinnivelly.	.8 56 4. 0 47	3 2 14 1 58 47	77 16 1 6 78 19 43
Vypaur, Christian Church	••••	Tinnivelly.	1 82		78 18 11
Vypaur station Volument Christian Church		Tinnivelly.	5 0	1 53 24	8 25 6
Vaimbaur, Christian Church Narripoor, building		Tinnivelly.	6 58	1 50 7	8 28 23
Mookoor, Christian Church	****	Tinnivelly.	7 54		78,32, 6
Yettinpooram, palace	••••	Tiunivelly.	8 59	2 15 20	76 3 10
Shungarnacoll, pagoda		Tipuivelly.	9 10 19	2 43 12	77 35 18
Perricormalli,		Tinuivelly.	9 12 23	2 45 28	77 33 2
Meenachipooram.		Tinnivelly.	9 12 40	2 16 25	78 2 5
Chungoo Choultry,		Ramnad.	9 14 59	1 24 82	76 53 58
Periapatèm,	••••	Ramaad.	9 15 7	1 20 39	78 57 51
amaswamy Choultry		Rampad.	9 15 54	1 11 31	79 6 59
Cothoopett, Christian Church	••••	Ramnad.	9 16-14	1:19 58	78 58 32
Vildauly,	****	Hamnad.	9 16 30	1 8 38	79 9 52

MEASUREMENT OF AN ARC

24				Longitupe	a from
Was	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Countries	Latitudes.	Madras obser	Greenwich.
NAMES OF E	LACES	Provinces.		Maerus (User)	
MAINT			-		
	1		0 17 B	1-28 37 W.	78 54 53E
	••	damnad.	0 17 6	9 40 11	77 38 19
rroopolany, pogoda		Tionivelly.	9 18 12	0 56 44	78 47 42
ikatilatt tittes	4.44	Ramondi	9 19 1	0 30 48	78 59 59
misseram, pagoda	4440	Ramuad.	9 22 18	24 96	78 3.54
tuned bejessiones tooanimudes, belogs	41	itamped.	9 28 54	1 0 0 1	77 41 17
boreapauras hilly	***	l'innivelly.	9 30 37	1	77 51 15 .
	2 2 2	l'innivelly.		1 m 10 m 51	77 50 39
	gr	Madura.	0 44 2	2 34 34	77 43 56
"" mychinaig barrans P.	Rodg	Madura	9 52 3	1 9 11 (78 7 30 78 10 34
uddragherry uilly		Madura.	1 9	6 9 7 50.	77 59 34
ak andermalit.	4444	Madure		2 18 56	77 55 16
Madura Fort, pagous	••••	Madara.		6 9 22 14	77 37 11
Nagamalli		Madura	10 18	2 2 41 19	78 1 7
Risheemalii,		Coimbetoor	10 21	39 2 17 23	77 34 32
Permaul hill,	****	Madura. Colmbeloot	10 26	23 2 48 58 30 2 31 26	77 47 4
Dindigul flag staff,	••••	la I - batani	10 28	1 4 00 97	76 58 3
Pyney hill, pagoda	••••	Im 4 1 - 4 m (4)	10 35	41	77 55 49
Virpachy hill, pagoda Jaiokul droog		Madara.	1.0	1 0 00 10	77 58 20
Jajokai arrok	***	i olm betoo	r. 1.0 38	7 40 84	77 37 56
Kurroomalli, Ruogamalli,		Calminator	r. 110 =	7 1 L	77 35 18
		Chimbeton	r. 1.10	35 2 43 12 48 3 3 34	1 77 14 50
Company Mighest	avalier,	Calmbeto	ir. 10	12 2 44 3	77 34 7/
Chenjares bill, pagud	B 9 6.5	Colmbeto	or.	59 2 38 10	77 40 20
ali (Yadaarmalii)	. ** *	Coimbeto	or. 10	44 2 34 29	7/ 40
Nandkaunee hill,	****	Coimbelo	or.	33 2 19 50) ''
#Kantoolliam,	• • • •	(Colmberg	101.	37 3 20 1	77 0 3
elPirmatty hills	44.4	Coimbeto	or. Lo	42 3 17 5	77 40 4
Dabroot, Dakous		Coimbete	74.	48 2 37 4	77 00 3
Coimbetour, palacs	13	Coimbet	1 1 1 1 A		77 35 3
* Putchapollism,		Coimbet.			77 3
e Haflagamalli, pagod		Calmbah	oor. 11		
Shevamahi, pagoda Shevanumputty, (bu	ilding)	10.1-544	oor.	* T " a an I	1 77 40
Woodkulee hill, pag	ods see	O lambas	oor. Ill		77 34
Yaclmateor hill,		Calmbal	gor.		14 78 10
Arsanamalli,	90 00		1 11 3	9 44	77 33
lay mout droom fire	e near Mosque,	Colmbe	toor. 11 1	9 00	7 1 77 90
Viziemunglum, pag	ods		111		78 10
LA Lucabattv. Degov	-	Salem	, ,	20 29 2 31	
Ninahmalli, pagodi	yes Manaling	Coimb	tour.		47
Retode Ports 3.	ast caralier	Coimbo	etoor.		55 77 57
		Colmb	toor.	29 32 2 21	
Landrage Bills	agous	Salem.	V	99 BR 2 57	30
In white KOUS HELLS	1-0-1	L ICOIDIO	6.00.	25 48 2 34	19 1
Wallatone, DREOUN	****	Colmb	Ctoo.	27 0 2 48	- me 1
Bkavany, pagoda	s hill magnifica	Coimi	10100.	28 39 2 31	77 1 77 1
//	7 1 17				74 .
o Wootachmanis P	Rear	in de de de la constitución de l		30 18 3	J 90, 1 mg m
ACC. In core HICODE		Galam.	111		77 9
Landam men militar	k niller	Selem	betour. 11		
# ## Hijisketine hos	A Service	10.1-	betoer. 11		78
Mailiamah droog	3	and an	11		77
Kumbetariae hill	pagoda .	Colm	hatoore 1.11	41 41 3	6 57 78
and the state of the		Cata	100,00.	41 47 2	0 01
Thegraemangle	m, nagoda	(3010)	The second second		

ON THE MERIDIAN.

		Countries	7.	لد سو م	P.Lum	Longitud	es from.
names of Places:		and Provincess	Lug	titud	16.8°	Madres obser.	Greenwich .
						0 , 14	0 (((mil
Womosloor Fort, savalier	••••	Coimbeleor.	11				78 5 39E
Tronn comment,	••••	Coimbeloor.	15.		50	2 36 27	77 42 3 77 23 31
Bundhally dreeg,		Coimbeloor.	12	12	18 56	2 54 59	77 21 1
Gopauldroog,		Mysoor	12	27"	25	2 37 35	77 40 55
Decrapating		Mysoor.	12	41	0	2 48 36	77 29 54
Moods waddie droog,	****	Mysoor.	18	49	37	2 33 81	77 44 59
Oossoor hill, pageda		Mysoor.	12	48	37	2 24 53	77 58 87
Bonnairgottan hill,		Mysoor.	13	48	. 46	2 40 40	77 37 50
Timmeroyah N. E. Zaf Fort,		Mysoor.	12	50	31		77 41 %
Bangalore, palace		Mysoor.	13	57	87		77 37 46
Dodagoontah,		Mysoor.	1.3	0	4		77 40 50
• Muntapum,	•••	Mysoor.	,18	<u> </u>	48		77 38 17
lirtopully bill,	***	Mysoor.	1.3		2)		77 32 43
Bonnapooram hill		Mysour.	13	- 1	33 34		77 50 17
Operation Kedgah,		Mysoor -	13	15	3		77 48 51
Decorelly Fort,	***	Mysoor. Mysoor.	13	15	36		77 41 10
Koondana hill, pagoda B. Baltapoor, Eedgah	•••	Mysoor.	-13	17	49		77 35 18
miChanthat Lill !		Mysour	13	19			77 19 40
*Kulkotah hill		Mysoor.	13	25	. 18	2 30 8	77 39 22
Markly droog, (pagoda,)	•••	Myspor	13	26	· · 🙎		77 33 27
Rungaswamy hill, pagoda	•••	Myroor.	-13	18	3	2 42 13	77 36 11
Goodeebundah droog, pagoda		Myseor.	12	40	38	2 33 4	77 45 96
Baggapilly N. E. angle of the Fort,		Mysnor.	13	47	13		77 51 16 77 50 5
Kondicondan droog, remark. stone,		Ced: Districts.	-	49	54	- 100	77 42 25
Werracondah,		Mýsoor.	13	55 59	44		77 32 0
#Bomsundrum,	• • •	Mysoor Mysoor.	14	6	23		77 19 59
Paughor,	••	Ced." Districts		15	51		77 39 46
Durmaveram, great building	•••	Ced. District	14	24			77 46 41
Kannaganpilly, hili pagoda	••	Ced. District	14	26	59	2 44 8	77 34 22
Condapilly hill.		Ced, Districts	. 14	31	37	7 9 150 58°-	77 27 82
Davurcondah,		Ced. Districts	. 14	40	37		77 49 15
Annantapoor Fort,		Ced. Districts		40			77 39 51
Onderpeedroog,		Ood. Districte.	-	49	56		77 24 1
Paumdy hill,		Ced. Districts.		57	51		77 38 14
South end of the base,	****	Ced. Districts:		0	58 : 45		77 42 5 77 96 2 5
Wadjar Carroor,	••••	Ced. Districts		1	16		77 33 24
a Boglemanicondah,	••••	Cec. Districts		3	53		77 39 47
North end of the base,	****	Ced. Districts		6	_		77 39 44
Monakoondigo hill,		Ced. Districts		6			77 25 28
Gooty droog, flag staff		Ced. Districts.		6		2 36 8	77 43 22
Gnadaculgouda, pagoda		Ced. Districts.		7	23		77 17 42
Boleecondan,	• • • •	Ced. Districts.		10	46		77 34 17
Mokny high cavaller,	,	Ced. Districe.			7 .		77 6 54
Prepitty droog platform,	***	Cod. Districts.		14	.8		77 47 59
Muddigherry, pagoda	• • • •	Cert. D'atricts.		15	84	2 \$0 15 8 15 43	77 28 15 77 2 47
a Goodathoor,		Ced. Districts.		19	24	2 38 37	77 39 53
e Kvelscondah		Ced. Districts.		31	17	3 11 41	77 6 49
Gnoleum, (intret)	****	Ced. Districts		29	";	9 33 20	77-45 10
Sannygoondton, philar	• • • • •	Cod. Districts.		_	. 44	2 44 39	77 33 51
e Pittfrondah,	****	Code Districts.		24	38	. 3 12	77 14 38
AND LEGIS OF CO.							

A STATE OF THE PARTY OF THE PAR		<u> </u>	Countries		Longitud	es from.
NAMBS OF PI	LACES.	· .	and Provinces.	Latitydes.	Madras obser.	Greenwich.
			,		1 5 43 W	77 12 47E
a denog turret		10	ed. Districts.	15 28, 14	2 30 17	77 39 13
Varaniky droog, turret		i. Ic	ed. Districts.	15 28 16	PATE SE	77 5 39
Pooly condah,		3	ed. Districts.	15 30 6		77 36 24
Iolelgoondah,	••	· · lc	ed. Districts	15 32 8	2 42 6	77 21 58
Davuncondah,	••	٠ ار	ed. Districts.	15 34 11	2 56 32	
Kotacul hill,	• •	••• 16	led Districts	15 38 25	2 43 27	
Curnacul hills		10	led. Districts	15 38 53	2 58 30	77 20 0
Adonidroog, building	=		Ced. Districts	15 44 44	2 47 99	77 31 1
Goodicul bettn,			Ced. Districts	1 , 0		77 18 59
Buddah Toomul, pagoda	4174 4					78 5 16
laggernaut,			Kurnool.	1 10. 45	2 22 243	77 21 49
Chinna Toomul, turret on	hill		Ced. Districts		11 10 00 01	77 20 9
	••		Ced. Districts	15 48 4		77 44 16
27-man en e			Ced. District	. 15 49 5	1	78 6 20
			Kurnool.	15 49 5	8 2 12 10	77 17 54
Kurnool Fort, Laul Batte	er y	••••	Ced, District	s. 15 51 1	1 3 0 36	77 21 13
and doub,	•••		Cod. District	8.1 15 59 9	1 2 57 17	
CARGO SANCABALL		••••	Dooab.	15 52 5	8 2 26 27	77 51 53
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Nauguldinny, pagoda		****			9 2 58 10	77 20 20
	re • •		Ced. Distric	1 .	6 9 0 11	78 18 19
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Poonga Budden, turret	****		Dooab.	1	1	77 47 97
100mg - Third needs	****	••••	Doosh.	1 * 7 * 7		77 21 47
Tennacul hill, pagoda		••••	Dooah.	1		78 18 57
	-1-		Karnogle	16 0	12 1 59 33	78 31 34
Moorycondah, N. E. ang	10		Kurnool.	16 1	6 1 46 56	1
Peddacoorva hill,	14000	***	Dooab.	16 1	23 2 11 41	
Pauktoor Fort, N. W.	ingle .	••••	Doosb.		43 2 12 4	78 6 26
Pauktoor Eedgah.	****			16 2	0 2 12 42	78 5 48
Marra Moonigalie,	***	****	Nizam.	16 5	0 2 9 37	78 8 53
Yellacondah,			Nizam.	16 8	15 1 2 54 6	77 24 24
	• • • •		Donab.	1	54 2 23, 14	77 54 16
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	B		Nizam.	1 18 13		77 42 54
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Darroor hill,		• • • •	Vizam.	16 13	49 2 19 16	
ihaikapeor bill,			Doonb.	18 14	16 2 27 10	77 91 20
Geddawal pagoda	***		Nizam.	16 14	59 2 7 17	
Paungul droog,	• • • •	• • • •	Dogab.	118 16	33 2 57 6	
Marchada Fort.	****	****	Doorb.	16 23	41 2 39 90	77 46 10
Chanderragudda droeg !	pagoda	• • • •	Nizam.	16 26	14 2 34 48	77 43 47
Narrawah Mosque,	••••	****	1	16 40	87 2 50 19	
Balchacker peak,		****	Nizam.	1	.77	
Garcomurtee.	20.040		Nizam.	j 16 27	- 1	
		• • • •	Nizam.	6 28	97 2 52 14	
Kotapilly hill,	,2000.	••••	Nizam.	16 29	54 2 45 10	
Muckiul Bedgab,		4	Nizam.	1 18 29	59 2.44	
Mucktul, pagoda	••••	4444	Nizam.	7 16 31	6 2 55 2	
Kuddasoer Mosque,			Nizam.	1 16 33	40 2 11 4	
Ghuanoora droves	••••	,0100	Nizam.	16 39	4 2 44 2	
Outkoor Fort, cavallet	447*	****	Nizem.	16 49	30 2 36	9 77 42 30
linpaliguet,	••••	****	1	10 44	48 2 27 5	8 77 50 54
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Yateghor drong,		****	Nizam.			
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			Nizam.	16 47	34, 3 54, 6	7 7 00 0
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NAMES OF PLACES.	Countries	Lolitudes.	Longues from.				
	Provinces.	Luituaes.	Madree obsery	Greenwich.			
Aumantagherry hill,	· · {Nizem.	1 17 18 35	2 23 54 W	77 54 35E			
	Nizam.	117 24 57		77 89 0			
Nagareddy pilly,	Nizam.	17 96 11	2 19 20	77 59 10			
Topecondah hill, pagoda	Nizam.	17 30 27	2 10 6	78 8 24			
Kotamarpilly hill,	Nizam.	17 30 32		77 51 21			
Topecondah hill,	Nizam.	17 80 48	2 10 55	78 7 25			
Nuckulgutt hill.	Nezam.	17 32 18	2 21 3	77 57 27			
Rajenpett building,	- Irrimmeth	17 37 50	2 9 56	78 8 34			
Goblaveram, Fort N. W. augle,	· Nizam.	17 - 80 121	2 23 32	77 54 58			
Goraegut hill,	1	17 39 43	2 24 57	77 53 33			
Gopenpilly, pagoda	40.00.000	17 40 37	2 43 52	77 34 38			
Sheelapilly,	Nizam.	17 46 20	2 35 9	77 43 21			
Taudmunuoor,	a a est 0	17 48 48	2 17 14	78 1 16			
Jogywaut hill, pagoda		17 50 18	2 10 35	78 7 84			
Murrallee, remarkable tree,	Nizam.	17 50 57	2 18 3	78 0 27			
Malliga hill,		17 53 15	2 38 47	77 39 43			
Paumraud, turret	Nizam.	17 54 27	2 29 16	77 49 14			
Beder Mosque, high minater,	Nizam.	17 54 57	2 43 18	77 35 12			
Deodallah,	Nizam.	17 56 17	2 22 38	77, 84 52			
Chilleriga Fort,	Nizam.	17 37 38	2 24 1	77 84 29			
Kauramoongy Fort,	Nizam.	18 ,1 30		77 39 8			
East end of the base,	Nizam.	18 2 46.		77-48:38			
West end of the base,	Vizam.	18 3 24		77 38 22			
Daumergidda.	Nizam.	18 3 24	2 35. 9: 1	77 42-21			

Note .- All places marked with the arteriak (4) are great stations,



On the existence of the Hindu religion in the island of Balis.

By JOHN CRAWFURD, Esca

THE Hindu religion, which was at one time extensively spread; throughout the oriental Archipelago, and constituted the belief of all the tribes which had emerged from barbarism, or made any progress in social order, now exists only on the island of Baki, as the predominant religion.

That the Hindu religion still prevailed on Baki is a fact which has been long known; but I am not aware that any precise information has been made public on this curious and interesting subject. I shall it endeavour to supply the deficiency, as well as my own narrow experience and my want of previous preparation for so difficult a task will enable me. The details which I am about to lay before the Asiatic Society are chiefly the results of my own enquiries on the island; and were supplied to me through the liberality of the elder prince of Blelling, who omitted no opportunity of gratifying my curiosity. He caused some of the most intelligent Brahmons to be summoned to supply me with the information I required; and with great cheerfulness and good humour supplied himself the place of an interpreter, for

which a respectable acquaintance with the Malay language rendered him perfectly competent. To the honor of all the parties concerned, I must observe, that I met with the most perfect candour and openness, without the least impatience or reserve; on the contrary, an anxious desire to gratify my curiosity; and even a satisfaction displayed at the interest apparently taken in what so nearly concerned them. Religious intolerance, indeed, is a vice far removed from the dispositions of the inhabitants of all these islands, whether Mahomedan or Hindu.

When interrogated respecting their religion, the natives of Balisay, that they are of the religion of Siva, (Agama Siva), or of the religion of Buddha, (Agama Buddha); but as almost all knowledge of their religion is confined to its ministers, whose opinions and doctrines the people supinely subscribe to, it is usual to say "the religion of the Brahmans of Siva," and "the religion of the Brahmans of Buddha," instead of more general appellations.

It is of the Hinduism of the sect of Siva only, that I can surnish any detailed information. The Buddhists are sew in number. In the territories of the samily of Karang-assam, constituting perhaps not less than one half of the island, there were but three small districts chiefly occupied by the worshippers of Buddha and these were distant from the part of the island which I visited. The name of one of these districts is worth mentioning, for the inference which may be drawn from it. It is called Desa Buddha Kling, which means the country of the Buddhists of Kalinga.

The followers of Siva spoke of these of Buddha more with contempt than hatred or rancour—the last, indeed, are feelings not likely to be entertained by any people for a fallen sect; in which light the Buddhists were evidently looked upon. The Brakmans in their conversa-

stion often let fall expressions, which shewed that they entertained no respect whatever for the followers of the opposite worship. The sect of Siva may indeed be denominated the national religion. It is the religion of nine-tenths of the people, of every sovereign on the island, and of every man in power.

The followers of Siva on Bali are as in western India divided into four great classes or casts, viz. a priesthood, a soldiery, a mercantile class, and a servile class, respectively thus denominated; Brahmana, Satriya, Wifiya and Sudra. Making due allowance for the imperfection of the alphabets in use among the tribes of the oriental illands, I believe these terms will not be found to differ much from the original orthography; an observation which as far as I can judge, applies to the numerous class of words introduced from the Sanskrit. The following origin of the casts was distinctly stated by the Brahmans. "The god BRAHMA produced the Brahmana from his mouth, which imports wisdom: the Satriya from his cheft, which imports strength and government; the Wifiya from the abdomen, which implies that it is his business to furnish subfishence for the society; and the Sudra from the feet, which implies that he is destined to obedience and servitude." The Brahmans made this statement without my having put any question that could lead to it; for which reason it is that I repeat what to the Hindu Icholar must have the appearance of mere common place. The instituation of the casts is termed by the Balinese, Chator jalma.

THE Brahmans are held in high respect; they will not condescend to act with any inserior class. It is held unworthy of a Brahman to humble himself before any individual; and he will hardly deign to make a common obeisance even to his prince. To fit on the ground is derogatory to his rank. To supercede the necessity of this doing so, I observed that at Blelling in the apartment where the Raja received us, there was constructed a permanent seat well raised

from the ground; on which the Brahmans ranged themselves. In the audience chamber of every Raja I was given to understand that there was a similar structure. The person of a Brahman is held inviolable; and hardly any circumstance of aggression on his part will warrant taking his life.

mese do. The Brahmans alone wear it long, tying it as the Hindus of western India do, in a knot behind the head. From this circumstance it was no dissicult matter to distinguish them. In a superior regularity of seatures, and the absence of the slat and often unmeaning lines of the Malay visage, I imagined, with others of my countrymen, that their Indian origin, could easily be traced. This will be thought the less improbable when it is recollected that the present generation is but the tenth removed from the sirst slock that settled on the island. The superior classes may take concubines from the inserior: but the opposite practice is strictly interdicted. The offspring of such unions, as in continental India, forms a variety of new casts. A legal marriage, however, can be contracted only between persons of equal rank, so that the four great classes are in this manner preserved distinct.

Among the Hindus of Bali as well as in India, there exists a class of outcasts called as there Chandala. These are held impure, and being excluded from associating with their fellow subjects, occupy the ourskirts of the village. Potters, dyers, dealers in leather, distillers, and retailers of ardent spirits, are of this order.

HITHERTO I have described practices and institutions nearly parallel with those of *India*; but there are others, to judge from which, the natives of *Bali* would hardly deserve the name of *Hindus*, in our appreciation of the customs and habits, which ought to be ascribed to the latter.

THE fingular prejudies of the Hindus of Continental India on the subject of food, are either qualified in practice; or altogether neglected by those of Bali. The lower classes are by no means punctilious on the subject of diet; and the Brahmans who alone attend to distinctions of this kind, respect them with such modifications, as render their observances very wide of the Indian practice, as far as my limited acquaintance with both will enable me to judge.

The Bainese venerate the cow: but they assign as the reason for paying no peculiar honors to the common breed sound on their own island, that it is not the one which their religion commands them to respect. The breed of oxen sound on Bali is of the wild species, usually called. Benteng by the natives of these islands. It is of a remarkably large size, and fit for any purpose of agriculture, but wants the hump which characterizes the Indian cow; and which would seem necessary to entitle the animal to sanctify. On Java, I have seen many images of the Bull Nandi, the vehicle of Mahadeva, with an enormous hump evidently showing that the ordinary cattle of these countries did not afford the models from which such sculptures were made. The Raja of Blelling expressed a great desire to have one of the Indian breed, and wrote me to this effect on my return to Java. I had the satisfaction to procure a white bull and cow of the Gujrat breed, which were sent to Bali, and reached the Raja in safety.

THE ordinary ox of Bali is decidedly held in no respect; for the inferior classes eat beef without scruple. The Raja supplied our troops with abundance of cow beef in preference to that of the buffalo, which is more esteemed among the Balinese. The cattle were staughtered on the beach within a few yards of the house where the Raja resided; and this without offering violence to his own prejudices, or those of any class of his subjects.

The Brahmans indeed abiliain from eating beef and every species of animal food whatever. Their diet is purely vegetable: they even sometimes go so far as to refrain from eating rice of other farmaceous grain, confining their diet to roots and fruits. Neither milk nor any preparation from it, is used as food. This is however easily explained. The cattle of the oriental islands yield too scanty and precarious a supply to constitute an article of food. The Brahmans of Bali dwelt upon this circumstance, and said that their books recommended to them the milk of the cow, and a certain oily preparation from it as the most excellent of all diet: but that it was their missortune that the cattle of their island did not afford them the food so peculiarly prescribed to them by their religion.

In Bali there are no Fakirs; no mendicant devotees such as overrun western India. Neither as far as I could discern is there any thing known of those absurd penances, and those whimsical and painful practices by which the Afcetics of western India recommend themselves to distinction. The austerities of a Brahmana or Pandita on Bali consist of exercises of self-denial; such as abstinence from certain descriptions of food: exclusion from the fociety of mankind, and retirement to caves and forests. Celibacy is occasionally but rarely in the list of meritorious austerities. The three inferior classes among the Balinese seemed. to me to eat indifcriminately of every species of animal food, commonly deemed edible; among those, pork is evidently the favorite food. We saw great numbers of hogs of an excellent kind which seemed to be taken great care of. They constitute indeed the principal animal food of the people. At an entertainment given to the officers of the expedition by the aja, Rand at which he himself presided, pork dressed in a great variety of forms, made up the largest portion of the feath. The Brahmans alone refule to eat with the inferior classes. At this feast

the Raja drank tea prepared and handed to him by his attendants, who were generally Sudras: he even went further, and did not scruple to receive the same beverage handed to him by a Chinese. An European long accustomed to the unsociable prejudices of western India, on a subject in itself indifferent, will be agreeably surprised to find an almost total absence of all prejudices on this point in the population of the oriental islands. On Bali one might see a Hindu, a Chinese, a Mahemedan, and a Christian, sit at the same board and partake with little exception of the same fare:

THE Buddhists, from the account I received of them from the Saivas, are still less scrupulous in the matter of diet than the latter, who stated of them as a matter of reproach, that they did not he sitate to eat carrion and the slesh of dogs.

NEITHER the Brahmans, nor the other twice-born classes of Bali wear the thread, which is their usual badge in India; nor did I observe the use of any sectarial mark whatever. The want of the latter may be easily accounted for; for where nearly all are of the same sect, distinction becomes supersluous. The absence of the thread is certainly singular, and calculated to excite suspicion respecting the purity of their extraction. The sirst settlers necessitated to intermarry with the natives of the country, might still regard the injunctions of religion so far, as to deny to their contaminated posterity, the use of the sacred badge of their order.

A BRAHMAN of Benares, one of our sepoys was introduced into the presence of the Raja. He acknowledged that the Balinese were degenerated Hindus; but added rather vaguely that all the rest of the world but his own countrymen were so too. I need hardly observe that he and my Bali friends were mutually unintelligible to each other. I

pointed out to the latter the facerdotal cord which he wore: but the nature of it was altogether incomprehensible to them.

Or all the customs which certify the essential Hinduism of Bali, there is none of so decided and unequivocal a character, as the sacrifice of the woman on the suneral pile of her lord. The following is a short account of the ceremony as practised on Bali. When a wife offers herself the sacrifice is termed Satya; if it be a concubine, slave, or other domestic, it is called Bela. A woman of any cast may sacrifice herself in this manner; but it is most frequent with the Satriya and Wisiya. It very seldom happens that a woman of the service class thus facrifices herself; and what is still more extraordinary a woman of the sacredotal order never does.

In the vicinity of every town or large village, a place is set aside for this solemnity. It is the same where the common dead are burnt. On our march to the palace of the Raja, which is two miles from the shore, we saw a place of this kind where many victims had perished. In a pit which was there, there were still some ashes, the relicts of the last sa-crifice. The Raja informed me that Captain Saybr of the royal navy, and some of his officers were present three years ago, when two young semales sacrificed themselves at this very place. In the manner of performing the ceremony, I could not find that there was any thing which differed from the practice in the southern parts of India.

Perhaps the most remarkable circumstance, connected with these facrifices, is the great number of women who on particular occasions offer themselves. The Raja stated that when his father's body was burnt, the incredible number of 74 women sacrificed themselves with it. I know from the authority of persons who were present, that 20

winnien factificed themselves last year on the funeral pile of WAYAHAN
JALANTEC, one of the fovereigns of Lombok.*

THE Raja of Belling informed me, that there was more need to reftrain than encourage the women on such occasions; and the Mahomedans of Bali, a less suspicious source of information on such a subject, declared that they never knew any instance of force or overpersuation on fuch occasions. An instance of humanity and reason it may be prefumed not very frequent, is well worth recording. BAGUS JAKANTEG. a prince of Karang-assam on Bali, who died but a few months ago, directed on his death-bed, that neither his wives nor his domestics should facrifice themselves on his funeral pile. As the bodies of the dead are preserved for a great length of time after death, it seems reafonable to suppose that grief can have little share in the motives which induce the women to determine upon these facrifices. The meritorioulnels of the facrifice; the honor it confers, and the rewards and distinctions which are thought to await the victims in a future state of existence, I was affured by the Balinese, were the only motives which excited the women to destroy themselves on this occasions. The Raja discoursed with me freely on the subject, and seemed to smile at the fimplicity of the poor women; though I will not pretend to affirm with: how much fincertiy.

In the treatment observed in other respects, the only circumstance which seems to differ from the practice of the Hindus, is the long period which it is customary to preserve the body previous to burning it. This is always in proportion to the rank of the deceased. The bodies of persons of the lowest order, are usually preserved for some weeks; and those of persons of rank often for a period exceeding a

Lombol, the principal population of which is Mahomedan, was conquested about 50 years ago by a prince of Bell; and is fill in subjection to the Balinesia

the Brahmans before the body can be consumed. During this time it is embalmed, and kept in apartments constructed for the purpose. A relation of the raja died some months before our arrival on Bali; and his body, had then not been consumed. My curiosity was excited respecting it, as four women had given out their intention of burning themselves with it. I therefore interrogated the ambassadors, who came to Java sour months thereaster, respecting it; and sound that it had not yet been burnt, the Brahmans not having been able to determine on a fortunate hour for this important purpose.

THE Balinese esteem the burning of the dead body, a sacrifice to BRAHMA, whose emblem they say that element is, agreeably to which BRAHMA in their language and in that of Java, has become an appellation for sire.*

How the Buddhiss of Bali treat the dead, I have not been able to learn. When Hinduisin prevailed on Java, a sect on that island exposed the bodies of the dead to the open air, as is now done by the inhabitants of Tibet and parts of Tariary, and by the Persian worshippers of sire. This mode of treating the dead was termed Setra; and considered in the light of an oblation to the deity of the Sun (Súrya). Gold trinkets and beads are now and then sound on Java, and said to have been the ornaments worn by the dead on such occasions. It is probable that the sect which treated the dead in this manner were Buddhiss. The Brahmans of Bali do not perform the ordinary rites of religion in the temples. This is left to persons of inferior rank generally Wisiyas or Sudras, who are termed Mamamanku or guardians of those temples,

Proper names in Sanferit, as far as I can judge, are often uled as appellatives in the languages of these illands. Thus, Brahme s fire; Call a river; Ganga water; and Maruta and Pavana, the wind.

The Brahmans even went the length of allering that they paid adoration to no idol whatever, a fingular circumstance certainly if true. My own want of sufficient experience will not allow me to decide upon the accuracy of this statement. I must, however observe, that I was a good deal surprised not to meet on that part of Bali, which we visited, any images of Hindu worship, such as I had been accustomed to see in great numbers on Java. I have reason to believe, notwithstanding the strong affertions of the Brahmans, that Hindu temples really exist in the interior of the island, though they be not common.

The Brahmans are intrusted with the whole of the administration of justice, civil, criminal and ecclesiastic. Contrary to the practice of India, which places the magistracy in the hands of themilitary class, it is here the exclusive province of the priesthood, who are possibly from the possession of such valuable temporal authority, induced to leave the common ritual of religion to their inferiors.

In every village there is one or more places of worship. I visited two of these rude temples, which in the language are denominated Sanga. They consisted of a square enclosure, the wall of mud, without any other covering than what the shade of an Indian sig tree assorbed. Upon entering we saw nothing but a sew wooden presses of the rudest construction, containing some cups with oil and wicks prepared to be lighted up at night. A Sudra entered one of these temples with us, who seemed very anxious to satisfy our curiosity as far as lay in his power. He approached the wooden presses with great reverence, prostrating himself before them; and muttered some prayer which we could not understand. I asked him through an intrepreter, to whom he paid his adorations; and he said to the great god of the ocean (Deva agun Ságara.) The temple was within a few yards of

"the feet and dedicated to the tutelary god of that element."

The vulgar worship of the people differs widely from the religion of the Brahmans. I conversed with the latter on this subject, who seemed to look down on the vulgar superstition with much contempt. With the populace every spot is supposed to have its guardian deity, to whom a temple is raised. He ranks according to the extent or importance of the place he protects. Every nation on Buli has its peculiar tutelary god; so have every village. The mountains, forests, and rivers are in the same way imagined to have their respective guardians. It is to these that the gross worship of the common people is cheisly addressed, while the Brahmans and those instructed by them, worship the gods of the Hindu Pantheon.

Among these, Mahadeva or Siva is chiefly invoked. The Bolinese call him most frequently Prama Siva "The Lord Siva"; but he is known to them by most of the many names and epithets bestowed on him in the Hindu mythology. He is the same deity so familiar to the converted natives of these islands under the title of Bataragura. They paint him as an angry and powerful syrant; in this respect agreeing not less with his charaster of destroyer in the Hindu Triad, than with the attributes of the chief deity of a barbarous people ever misc ievous and malignant. On Java where the Hinduism, which prevailed was, as now on Sali, of the sect of Siva and of the heresey of Buddha, a great variety of images of the peculiar objects of the worship of these two sects are to be met with, while one seldom sees any relicts of the images more immediately connected with the worship of Vishnus. The Balinese have two great religious sessions, each of which occurs twice a year, the one succeeding the other at an interval of ten days. The first in point of

Within an yards of the temple, there was a cock-pit, in which there were full 100 cocks ready trained. The Bulinefe are great cock fighters.

Kuninan, and is of three days' duration. These selected is termed Kuninan, and is of three days' duration. These selectivals take place in December and June, the series the time in which the great rice cultivation commences; and the second, that in which the harvest is reaped; in short the spring and harvest of these southern latitudes. They answer I may presume to the sessival of the Holi, and that in honour of Dursa in India.

THESE festivals are dedicated to rejoicing, sessivity, and the worship of the gods, not deemed incompatible with each other. All serious occupation is interrupted; even war at all other times carried on with the relentless serocity common to Barbarians, is deemed unlawful during the celebration of these sessivals.

WHATEVER be the religion of the tribes of the oriental islands, one general observation applies to all, that sentiments connected with it make no deep or permanent impression upon them. The prejudices of the East-infular Hindus are neither exclusive nor unsocial; nor are their institutions marked by that character of permanency and immutability which we ascribe to the native institutions of India; and Mahomedanism, as it is practised here, is nearly stript of its zeal and intolerance. Considerable experience of the Javanese in particular has fully convinced me that they regard the precepts of the Koran, only when perfectly convenient to them. I do not apply this observation particularly to the common people, who like those of other countries, often want time and opportunity to give their attention to such subject; but to the middling and better classes of society, who enjoy the requisite leisure; and who are not destitute of the intelligence or acquirements that might be supposed necessary to a con-

The matitime and commercial tribes, such as some of the Malays and the principal population of Celebes assertaicher Mahomedous han those of whom I maye had most experience. A longer and more frequent intercourse with foreign Mahomedous has made them so.

sideration of fuch subjects. Among these there is not an example, one in a thousand, who abilisin from the open use of wine; and in the native cours of justice the interest of money is sued for as openly and with as little scrupte, as in the most commercial society in Europe.

THESE people are at the same time to a wonderful degree simple and credulous. It is necessary to know them, to be able to understand, with what facility they sometimes lend their belief, to the most marvellous and improbable sictions; more particularly if recommended through the medium of religion.

This character renders the Javanese the perpetual victims of delusion and imposture. No great plant strikes a deep or firm root in such land, which is the natural foil of the perishable weeds of ephemeral and puerile credulity. Last year it was almost as if by accident discovered, that a beautiful road, more then fifty miles in extent, had been made in a very sequestered part of the island, and in the territories of the native princes. The population of whole districts was employed in making it: but for what purpose no one could ever distinctly tell: Some enthusiast it was said had dreamt or prophesied, that a certain holy person was to make his appearance in a certain day and hour on the summit of a high mountain,* from which he would descend into the plain. A road would therefore be necessary for his accommodation; and each man instigated his neighbour to the pious undertaking. Five or fix thousand persons were occasionally at work upon it; and the road was nearly completed in a few months. The facility with which the people were diffuaded from going on with the work when their useless toil was discovered, is not the least remarkable circum-

One of those, called the brothers by mariners; perhaps, the most lossy in the island.

flance connected with this firange flory. Were this the place. many other curious examples, in illustration not this character might be addressed rand this is the nefult of our own fact exmeriance of the reopie: In The natives of Balis, though I am less acquainted with them, I can venture to fay partake much of the same disposition. It may be asked then, how it has come to pals, that, while furrounded by Mahomedan tribes, they have relisted the introduction of the Mahomedan religion, to successfully and easily propagated among the great population of Java.* This, I imagine, is to be ascribed greatly to the many refugees from the last illand, who took shelter there on the establishment of the Mahomedan religion, and to the diffult naturally incident to an unfuecelsful attempt on the national religion, which is known to have been made about the peirod of the conversion of the furrounding tribes. But perhaps, above all these causes, it may be ascribed to the powerful opposition which it is reasonable to conclude the intelligence, art, and experience of the colony of Brahmans, then fo recently arrived from India, would make to the intrigues of the Mahomedan missionaries .† Even at present the Balinese are more pertinacious, and guarded on fuch points than I could have expected to find them, judging only by experience of their neighbours.

The elder Raja of Belling, whom I have so often mentioned, having requested me by letter to send him some Javanese books; I transmitted among others a Mahomedan theological treatise, translated from the Arabic, called "the history of all the prophets." He returned it to me by the first opportunity with the following civil and cautious, but very intelligible reply. "The subject of the book which my friend has sent me," says the Raja, "is of a very weighty nature. I even fear to

The population of Java faid to exceed tour millions, confituues pr heb'y the mill aumerous native flate that ever existed in the southern homisphere. Fourfaiths of these spice same language.

[†] Bali means to returns to fall back; a name given to the illand, it is faid, by the Mahomedan zealots, who attempted its conversion; in allusion to the people having elapted into Taganifm, after once embracing the faith of Mahamed.

keep such a performance in my possession; and trust therefore he will not be displeased that I return it."

CONTRACTOR SERVICE PROPERTY OF THE PARTY.

vereigns of Lombok, having visited the neighbouring island of Sumbawa, the principal population of which is Mahomedan; was circumvented by the art of some Mahomedan priests, and became a convert to their religion. Ketut Karane Assam, his sovereign and relative, highly incensed at his apostacy, immediately withdrew from him his support, and even sorbid him his country. The unfortunate prince in consequence wandered about for many years a wretched outcast; and at last perished by shipwreck on the coast of Ceylon, on his return from a pilgrimage to Mecca. The Mahomedans look upon him as a martyr, and his story is a subject of frequent conversation with them.

The Balinese however carry their jealousy no farther than seems reasonably necessary to their own security, against the attempts of a religion decidedly hossile to their own. Both the Mahomedans and Chinese enjoy the most undisturbed exercise of their respective worships; and the same indulgence would be extended no doubt to any other peaceable sect. The Mahomedans, though excluded from settling in the interior, or exercising any office directly connected with the details of domestic policy, are admitted to employments of trust and emolument about the persons of the princes. The consideratial minister of the Raija of Blelling, I found was of that persuasion. Some of the Mahomedans themselves gave me to understand, that the protection of some of the native princes was carried to a still greater length, some going so far as to insist with their Mahomedan subjects upon a more punctual personnance of the duties of their religion, than was suited to the lukewarm devotion of many of them.

The prin es of tw famir, but they alone, of the fovereigns of Ball and Lambol, are of the Wifiya or mercanile clair; the reft uniformly of the Satriya tribe,

One of the Rajas of Loudon, when I have already mentioned, a venerable old man of 80, who is now on the throne; is distinguished for his attention to this fingular kind of discipline, so entirely however it. the spirit so vicen ascribed to Polytheifin.

The learning of the Balinese is contained in a dead language, valled Kawi. The Kawi bears the same relation to the vulgar dialects of the Archipelago, that the Sanscrit does to the Pracrit dialects of Hinduston; or as the Pali does to the languages of the further Peninfula of India. It is the language of learning, of religon, and of the laws.

THE Kawi may be written either in the modern character of Bali and Java, which are the same (see note A); or in a more ancient and persect one, now nearly out of ule, and also common to both. The modern alphabet contains 20 confonants and five vowel founds: but has no characters for the initial and medial vowels. The ancient alphabet has the same number of consonants and vowels; two dipthong sounds with characters for the medial and initial vowels. Both are formed on the principles of the Dewa Nageri alphabets and the ancient alphabet in particular bears it a very close resemblance. The Kawi in point of construction, partakes of that singular degree of simplicity, which is so universal a character of the languages of this part of the world. It differs from most of these in a frequent use of the passive fignification of verbs, amounting indeed to a tort of exclusion of their active ones: a want of a pronoun of the third person, and in having the adjective in position placed before the noun.

Is the Kawi the original language of some nation of the continent of India imported by the first adventurers, or is it rather a language gradually formed by ingrasting upon the meagre dialect of the aboroginal inhabitants of these countries, a large portion of the language, which contained the religious inflitutions and arts, which the Indian adventurers introduced among the barbarous and lavage tribes of the oriental illands (see note a)

WITH a thorough conviction of my own incompetence to decide on this question, I have endeavoured to collect the materials to enable the oriental scholar to do so, and have for this purpose appended to my essay a short vocabulary of Kawi words, and an extract from the Kawi Mahabharat, with an English version made through the medium of the common Javanese language. The translation is I hope as faithful as can be expected under such circumstances. (See Note E.)

ALL Kami composition is in regular measured verse, of which there are twelve radical stanzas, from which a variety of others may be formed, according to established rules of prosody. These rules are, I imagine, borrowed from those in use in India. To enable the Sanscrit scholar to judge, I specify the names of the 12 radical stanzas which are as follow: Sardula-wikundita, Jaya dita, Wahirat, Basanta-tilata, Wansa patra, Srakdara, Sakurine, Swandana, Champakamalya, Prawira latita, Danda, and Katri-padma.

THE most popular and esteemed work in Kawi is the # Brata-yuda or holy war, which I imagine is the great Indian poem the Mahabharat, or rather a paraphrase of it. The Javanese imagine it to be an original work, and do not scruple to point out on Java the site of # Astina and the various scenes of the wars of the Mahabharat. The Brata-yuda was composed (I

This confirms the crymologic I affinity between the word Kawi, and the Sanferit terms Cavi a poet, and Cavya poetical composition.—Note by the Secretary.

⁴ Of the forms here enumerated eight are decidedly Sanferit, viz. Sa'rdu la vieri'eita, Vofanta tilaca, Vanfapatra, Sragdbara, Sichárini, Champaca mala, Pravara laiza, and Dan'd'a; (ice the table annexed for the Colebbaooke's effay on Sanferit and Pracrie Poetry, A. R. vol. 10, p. 468); the reinaining four have every appearance of being Sanferit terms, though the change they may have undergone both in their pronunciation, and in the written expression of the founds, makes it difficult to verify them—Dite.

1 Probably, a corruption of Bha'rata, the family of BHARATA, amongst whose descendants the was occurs, and yuddba was.—Ditto.

Hastinapur ancient Debli, or a city about 50 miles N. E. of the modern city of Debli; &'e capital of "hist' bir. - Ditto.

should rather say translated or paraphrased) in the Javanese year 1117, by, a Brahman of Java, called Puseddah. This date is invariably prefixed to every copy of the work. The sacred and mystical syllable Om or On, as the Javanese pronounce it, is also not unfrequently prefixed, and I think, is, a certificate of the genuine Hindusm of the poem. The language of the Brata-yuda is much more modern than that of several other works in Kawi.

In Kawi there is a version of the RAMAYANA, identified with the celebrated poem of Valmi'ki, by a precise similarity of title, and (as far as my limited means of informing myself will enable me to judge) of style and subject. The language is more obsolete and obscure than that of the Brata-yuda; and of the history of the composition nothing, is known.

ANOTHER work in Kawi is termed I believe with fufficient accuracy.

Niti-Sastra. It is a treatise on ethics in a style still more antiquated and obscure than either of the two last works.

A FOURTH and fifth work are called Vivaha and Arjuna-vijaya. These are legends of Arjun, a hero, whose name is of great renown one fava and Bali.

Or works on religion and law I can do no more than repeat the list? with which the Brahmans of Bals furnished me. Prefixing to each mame the word book or writing, the list is as follows:—Agama, Adigama, Purwadigama, Savasa muschayagama, Kutara-manawa, Dewagama, Maiswani, Tatwa, Weya-waraha, Dusta-kalahaya, Slokantaragama, Satmagama and Gamiyagamana.

Most of these works, as well as those mentioned above, are manifestly of Hindu origin; the term Agama which enters into the composition of most of the works here specified is a generic term in Sanscrit for any camposition treating of those sciences which are considered by the Hindu is sacredy. Note by the Secretary.

The Brahmans of Bali complained of the loss of some works of importance connected with their religion, and made anxious enquiry respecting their existence in India. I had not learning conugh to give them a satisfactory reply; nor can I now even call to mind the names or titles of the works in question. The conversation unfortunately took place in a moment of haste, when it was out of my power to take notes of what passed on the subject.

Handu scriptures or Vedas, and though I reasonably distrust the skill with which the enquiry was pursued, I am yet strongly inclined to believe, that they have no existence; and probably never had among the Hindus of the oriental islands. It seems singular enough, that an orthodox sect of Hindus, as the worshippers of Siva are, should not be in possession of the facred text. The inserior casts among the Hindus are by the ordinances of their religion interdicted from reading the Vedas. Did the first Erahmans, who settled in the Archipelago, lie from some impurity or contamination under a similar interdiction; or were they pretended Brahmans only, and in reality persons of inserior rank, to whom the use of the Vedas was unlawful? Or lastly did the first Brahmans, compelled by necessity to intermarry with the aboriginal inhabitants, conscientiously forbid the Vedas to their polluted posserity?

Among the writings which exist in the Kaws, the purest source is the numerous inscriptions on stone and copper which are sound on Java. These are all in the ancient character. From skillful translations of these, the history of Hinduism in the oriental islands will receive much elucidation. It is an interesting and important sact of these inscriptions that by far the greater portion of them have well defined dates. I have perused some nearly 1,200 years old. The greater portion however, do not exceed half that antiquity; but many refer to a series of dates long antecedent to the date of the inscriptions themselves. Of the style of

HINDU RELIGION

these inscriptions, I may observe, that it is mysterious and enigmatical, 148 abounding more in exhortations to piety and observance of religious duties, than in any important matter of fact. What portion of the sciences of India the Brahmans of Bali are in possession of, I had no means of afcertaining with any accuracy, and had fuch opportunity occurred. I should have been unable to avail myself of it for want of acquaintance with the original subject. The scanty remarks however, which I have collected on this subject, I willingly submit.

THE Indians have taught the inhabitants of these island their decimal Tystem of notation which is in common use on Bali and Java. Whatever progress the natives of these islands have made in astronomy, seems in a great measure also borrowed from the same source. Their year is lunar conserting of 360 days, which they divide into twelve unequal portions called Masa or seasons. The length of each is as

1st, 41 days. 2d, 23 ditto. 3d, 24 ditto. 4th, 24 ditto. 5th, 26 ditto. oth, 41 ditto. gth, 41 ditto. 8th, 26 ditto. 9th, 25 ditto. noth, 25 ditto. 11th, 23 ditto. 12th, 41 ditto.

In Sanfrit and in Midd itest thirte a memb 3, the folge month in recognized in Hindu comp

adjust this calculation, which is folar, to the lunar year. It is a function of practical importance as the occupations of the hulbandman are directed by these meteorological subdivisions of the year. Each seam so is appropriated to a particular employment, which the husbandman man never commences till methodically warned to it by the Brahmans: what the Brahman does on Bali, the Mahomedan priest performs on Java.

The days of the week are, I may prefume, evidently Indian, and so are the names of the signs of the zodiac: both are inserted in the catalogue* of Kawi words, that the Sanscrit scholar may be enabled to determine. Copper cups have been sound in numbers on Java with the Hindu signs of the zodiac engraven upon them; and I dicovered at Talaga in the district of Cheribon, a Kawi manuscript in the ancient character, which among many other Hindu sigures, had the signs of the zodiac distinctly depicted upon it.

The Hindus of the oriental islands are not without fome knowledge of chronology. The four fabulous eras of Indian chronology are known to them under the following names: Karta.yoga, Treta-yoga, Dwapara-yoga and Kali-yoga. The duration of each period is not specified; but that assigned to the whole, differs, in a most remarkable degree, from the account of the yogas given by the Indian chronolo-

This catalogue has not been received by the Society .- Note by the Secretary.

This performance appears to be an aftronomical treatife. It is written with black and red ink, upon a firong paper, almost resembling parchment. The manuscript consists of several long slips of papers folded zig-zag; and each compartment forming a distinct page in the way that I have seen Burman and Siamese manuscripts, written. This is the only ancient manuscript that has to my knowledge ever been discovered on Java by Europeans. Of the history of it nothing was known, nor was there any one in that part of the island who could read a syllable of it. It was not the less regarded on that account. The people of the district viewed it with superstitious veneration, and no consideration would induce them to part with it. Money and a valuable Koran were offered in vain. The chief, in whose possession it was, assured me with much simplicity, that the grops would sail, and samine and pessione assail the land, if the holy relic quitted it.

gifts. The united amount of the four periods, counting to the commencement of the present era, is no more than 15,025 years. I literally transcribe the account of the yogas with which I was supplied, without pretending to offer any explanation of the fingular discrepancy between it and all the Indian accounts, however disagreeing among themselves.

THE common eras of the east-infular Hindus, take their rife by their own account from the date of the first introduction of Hinduism among them. This event took place in Java* 1742 years ago, and in Bali five years later. The Javanese era is called the era of AJI SAKA. This I suspect, implies a tautology, as it means no more than the era of the prince who instituted the era. The leader of the first Indian colony to Java was a Brahman, named TRITUSTI, who is with reason believed to be alluded to under the title of AJI SAKA; dates are some times written in figures, which is generally the case in the different inscriptions found on Java: but a practice which I believe to be Hindu, that of substituting written images, bearing some analogy to the number intended to be represented, is much more frequent. The whole of the numbers of a particular date are strung together intoa verse, in which is generally implied some allusion to the transaction which it records. An example or two will explain this.

THE following line commemorates the building of the principal: temples at Brambanan on Java:

BRAHMANA iku hanana wulan-

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This means "that Brahman held up the moon in both hands." It: means to imply that the place was built by Brahmans, and the mar-

The Javanefe; notwithflanding their convertion to Mahomedanifm, thit preferre the Minds era, and nevercealculated by the Hejira.

vellous effort which one of them is described as making, probably allludes to the power and labour which the accomplishment of so great an undertaking required. Read inversely, it gives the year 1218.

SIRNA ilan kirti-nin bumi.

is a line which commemorates the destruction of Majapahit, the last Hindu state of Java.

THE verse literally means "Lost, lost is the work of the land,"
Read inversely it gives the Javenese year 1400. The tenor of the
verse indicates a feeling of regret for the loss of the city.

To what extent the Balinese have imitated the sculpture and architecture of the Hindus of western India. I have, as already observed, had no opportunity of ascertaining.* But many of the English who have visited Java, have had ample opportunity of appreciating the skill and extent with which the Hindus of that island had imitated these Indian arts. A view of the release on Java, it may be said, has excited, though to an inferior degree, the same sentiments of surprize in an European which have always been selt at the contemplation of the great monuments of Hinduism in Hindussan. They display a portion of the same laborious and indesatigable perseverance which characterizes those stupendous relics of Hindu art, which have been so often described. (See Note c.)

In the political institutions of the Hindus of the oriental islands may be traced many of those which peculiarly characterize the system of Hindu Government. Whereever the Hindu religion has made considerable progress in these islands, the hereditary government of a single individual will be invariably found established; where it has not, we see free, but savage communities; and still more frequently elective

[&]quot;My respectable and amiable friend Colonel MACKENZIE has given a sketch of Brambannan in the Batavian Researches. The word in the Javanese language imports " the place of Brahmans."

and turbulent monarchies: in the Hindu flates the administration is eaerusted to a minister; in the elective monarchies it is chiefly conducted by a council. With respect to the condition of landed property, I believe I may fafely venture to affert, that on Bali in particular, it is precifely the same as it now exists in India, in those Hindu states which have least delt the influence of the Mahomedan principles of Government. A right of private property in the foil is recognized with a refervation to fovereign of a portion of its produce.* Each village forms a little municipal community complete in itself, having its chief, a deputy, a village priest, &c. each entitled to some small remuneration from the funds of the village. If this were the place, these parallels snight be carried a great deal further. A short enumeration of the names and titles of the officers of government, will convince us how closely the oriental islanders have imitated the Hindu originals. Rajah. a Sovereign prince; Patch, a minister; Adipati, a title of nobility; Noyaka, a noble; Mantri, a tittle of nobility; Sena-pati, a commander in chief, &c. † These, i believe, are pure Sanscrit words; and the number I have little doubt could easily be increased by any one acquainted with that language.

I HAVE now to offer a few observations on the history of the introduction of Hinduism into the oriental islands. The information which I have been able to collect respecting this singular occurrence, will be found more precise and extensive, than might, at first view be expected, and it may seem unaccountable, that sacts of such importance and so well known to the natives themselves, should be confined to them,

The principal on which the land is affected on Rali is peculiar; but wears at leaft the air of reason and justice, reconciling and affimilating the interests of the sovereign and subject. The Rajah is, by a fort of faction, considered the proprieter of all the water of triggetion, and to him are entrusted what in these conserves may facility be termed the important functions of managing and directing it. Each proprietor pays a tax proportionate to the supply he receives; and the revenue of the prince is in the ratio of the quaintity he supplies. It is his interest therefore, to keep the water courses in repair, to construct new canals, and to get and the caltivation.

[#] In Sanferit, Rajab a prince, Pati, a mafter or loud, Arbipari a governor, Napuse a leader, Maneni a minit. ses, Sanfpati a general. ... Note by the Secretary.

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when European influence has been established over the very people possessed of this valuable knowledge, for more than two centuries.

I MAY begin by observing, that the precept of the Hindu religion, which interdicts the natives of India from quitting their native country, and attempting voyages by sea, is no better observed than the law of China, which prohibits emigration. In the very country whose history we are now considering we see both every day violated. Hindus from the Coromandel coast (always the source of emigration to these islands) come every year to seek their fortune in the Malay countries; and I have seen a colony of these settled at Malacca, who have for generations preserved the seatures, the language and religion, of their ancestors. This is enough to set at rest the question of the practicability of Hindu emigration.

KLING OF Kalinga is universally considered by the oriental islanders as the country from which the civility, laws and religion of India were introduced among them; and Java as the country which first acquired the arts of India, and from which they were disseminated among the surrounding tribes.* The natural advantages of Java would seem to have determined the Indian adventurers to this preference. The narrow shape renders the whole of it, unlike the other great islands, easily accessible: but above all, its preeminent fertility appears to have sixed their choice. In proof of this latter conjecture I would observe that the western portion of the island, though lying nearest the route from India, being in point of fertility far beneath the eastern and central parts, seems to have been entirely neglected by the Indian colonists. There, there is hardly a vestige of Hinduism, neither temple nor inscription; and the language of the Sundas does not like

[•] This opinion is predicted with much fogacity by a writer in the Edinburgh Review, vol. XVI.

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provement the former are far beneath the latter.

The first Indian colony which came to yava is said to have arrived in the first year of their present era, or 1742 years ago. The leader of this adventure was a Brahman of the name of TRITUSTI. The landing is said to have been effected on the south coast of the island, and the first establishment to have been made at the foot of the mountain of Sumeru, or Meru, which still preserves that name. TRITUSTI established the present era, and he is from thence more commonly known by the title of Agi Saka, or the founder of the era. Accounts are not agreed respecting the number of this first colony; but no statement which I have heard is so exaggerated, as not to be reconcilable to probability, the highest making it to amount to no more than 190 samilies.

It is an important and interesting fact respecting this emigration that the persons of whom it consisted, were not all male adventurers; but that women and children were of the number. The consort of the leader, and his two sons are expressly mentioned by name, the former called BRAHMANI KELL, and the latter MANUMANSA and MANUMANSA.

What over-ruling cause could induce a colony of Hindus to attempt (to them) a distant and dangerous voyage, and with their wives and families, to seek a refuge in an unknown country, seems at first a question of disticulty. Seeking a cause of sufficient magnitude for such an effect, and comparing the date of the emigration usually assigned to the persecution of the Buddhists, and their expulsion from western India by the superior influence of the Brahmans, I am in-

dubious expression? Are there not Brahmans of both persussions? On Ball, as I have already stated, the spring Brahman is applicable alike to the priess of both sells.

clined to think that the emigrants who took refuge on Java, constituted a branch of the general emigration of the followers of Buddha, who spread their religion among the population of Ava, Siam, Japan, China, and other eastern countries.

TRADITION indeed gives no account of the particular tenets of the first adventurers to Java. In the course of ages perhaps no great difference remained between the two sects, except what was merely doctrinal. Under those circumstances, posterity might forget the particular tenets of the early colonists. That no hostility subsisted between the later times may be strongly presumed. I shall adduce one proof only. In the great Buddhist temple already described in a note, there is not a single image of the worships of Siva or Vishnu, nor even any figure which I could identify with them; yet within a mile of it, there are two small ones evidently consecrated to the orthodox religion, as might be seen by their decorations: a fine statue of Brahmá upwards of seven seet high was discovered by us near the ruins of one of them.

The fors of Tritusti and their descendants, are said to have succeeded him in the government of his colony down to the first century of the Javanese era. In the year 417, the principal sovereign of the island claimed his descent from the first adventurer. If therefore Buddhism was the religion of the first settlers, it is probable it was the prevailing one down to that period.

From the arrival of the first settlers down to the year 350, a crowd of colonists and adventurers continued to come to Java, from which circumstance the inference I should draw, is that the same cause continued to impel them to emigrate, or in other words, that the persecution of the followers of Buddha in India, continued down to this period. The date of the arrival of the principal adventurers is shall as sollows:

SELA PRAWA	•	. •		-	j	1001			
Gotaka, in	-	-	•	•	•	•		•	200.
Suwila, in	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		310.
HUTAMA, in	-	•	•	•		•	•		331.
TRISDI, and h	is son	* Da	sa Ba	Hυ, i	n.	-	•		350.

About the year 350, the emigrations seem to have become much less frequent. The animosity of religious persecution had probably now ceased.

The connection with *India* was however by no means interrupted. Adventurers continued to arrive from time to time, and Javanese princes are occasionally described as visiting Kalinga down to the conquest of † Majapanit on the Javanese year 1400.

In the year 480, a number of Pandits are stated to have come to the island holding doctrines unknown to those who had come before them. The chief of these was Dariyari Kumbana. Their opinions being obnoxious to the people, they were maltreated and expelled from disferent native states, till they at last found resuge with Suyudana, the principal sovereign of the island, who made their chief his Guru, implying no doubt that he had embraced his opinions. Does this circumstance mark the first arrival of the worshippers of Siva?

A rew years previous to the Mahomedan conversion of the Javanese, a number of Brahmens of the sect of Siva, arrived on Java, and received protection from Bra-wijava, the last sovereign of Majapa-

The latter, in his capital which was called Hafting after the city of the Pandus, was attacked by heffile chiefs from Kalinga, the principal of whom called himself Rajs of Salanapuri. The Hindus of Jawa have acted like all other fettlers in new countries, and imposed the names familiar to them in their own on their new acquisitions. There is hardly a name of celebrity in the original country of the Hindus which has not its parallel on Jawa. Even the princes and chiefs have assumed names belebrated in Hindus legends.

⁺ Majahapit meaning of the place where grows the Maja of a hitter taft. Maja is the name of a finite bearing tree,

kit. On the overthrow of that state, they sted to Bali under their leader Wahu-Rahu, whose name is held in great veneration by the Balinese, who consider him no less than their apostle. The present Brahmans of Bali informed me that they were the tenth in descent from Wahu-Rahu and his companions. Except this I know nothing of the particular history of the introduction of Hinduism into that island. The era of Bali, however, is said to take its rise like that of Java from the arrival of the first Indian colony. It dates sive years later than the latter; a circumstance which, when, we consider the greater distance of the country, seems to give the supposition an air of probability.

THE Indian adventurers, who came to Java without uniting or combining, fettled in various and distant parts of the island, where they founded independent states. The influence and power which they acquired feems not to have been gained by force or conquest, but to have been the refult of art and persuasion, exercised through the medium of religion over the minds of a simple and credulous people; in a word the natural conquest which knowledge skilfully or artfully applied gains over simplicity and ignorance. That the natives were not compelled by conquest to adopt the Hindu religion, is, I think, fully proved by a fact generally admitted, that the Indians have not introduced into the languages of these islands any portion of their own vernacular dialects, while from the language of religion, literature and science, that is from the Sanscrit, there has been a copious influx. In the comparative ignorance of navigation, which has always characterized the Asiatics, it may indeed be deemed next to impossible that any Indian state should possess the skill or means to fit out a fleet or armament adequate to a distant voyage; or fit to accomplish the fettlement or conquest of a great country. If we consider the first emigrants as persecuted refugees, we shall be still more firmly of this epinion.

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THE first care of the new comers would be to acquire the language of the people, as the best means of recommending themselves and the only means of propagating their opinions. When they came to instruct their new disciples in religious duties, their instruction would be delivered in the language of the country, into which they would find it necessary to introduce such words as were necessary to explain the new ideas which they wished to communicate. In communicating a knowledge of arts and sciences, the same course would be purfued and hence the influx of a new class of ideas. From what language is it probable that the Brahmans would borrow such words? not, I imagine, from the vernacular dialects of their own country; but from the Sanscrit, the common language of literature, of religion, and science, wherever the Hindu religion prevails. On this subject it is with much diffidence that I venture to diffent from the opinions of such a writer as Mr. MARSDEN. The extensive instruence of the Sanforit upon the dialects of the oriental islands, he is decidedly inclined to ascribe to conquest, and long continued domination, a supposition which appears to me incompatible with the facts which we know on this subject. By forming such a conclusion, we should be compelled to believe, that the vernacular language of the supposed conquerors was pure Sanfcrit; an hypothesis untenable, as of the existence of a people of whom Sanscrit was the living language, there remains no historical record:

Conquest and entire subjugation (if the invaders settled in the conquered country) has never failed to introduce a great portion of the vernacular language of the conquerors, most frequently indeed completely altering the original languages of both parties to the formation of a third.

ONE of Mr. MARSDEN's arguments is drawn from confideration of the primitive and simple character of the class of ideas, to which

Sanscrit words are often applied. Many of inhabitants of these islands were no doubt in a barbarous state before they became acquainted with the Hindus of India, and must have wanted terms for many ideas which a farther improvement has made familiar to them. Such they necessarily borrowed from the Sanscrit; but the paucity and the meagreness of the radical portion of their own languages in general, is by no means such as to convince us, that their condition in society was extremely low and degraded previous to the improvement for which they are indebted to the Hindus.

THE Javanese, though acquainted with the Sangerit numerals, have a class of numerals of their own; nay, a double class suitable to the rank of the speaker. With these they count as far as a thousand, after which they reckon by the Sanferit numerals as far as a hundred millions. The Malay does the same thing without going so far. This affords an example of the manner in which the vernacular languages have borrowed from the Sanfer it. Words, implying confiderable abstraction indeed are generally borrowed from the Sanferit; fo are terms of science, with the language of Theology, and the names of arts, implements, and productions, in the use of which the inhabitants of these islands have been instructed by the Hindus. Such words as express those ordinary feelings and social relations common to our species as abstracted from those resulting from peculiarity of manners and customs, and from the knowledge of the arts of cultivated life, will in general be found to be expressed by native terms. That such ideas are cften expressed by Sanscrit words is fully admitted; but if I am not mill-ken, it is feldom that native fynonymes, are wanting for the fame words. In these languages, as in all others, a foreign term is often preferred to a native one; for which no reason can be assigned unless the whim of fashion and the love of innovation be admitted as fuch. Sometimes the native term becomes obsolete, and once becoming - entitielete, it is no diffic matter to conceive, that it may occasionally be elsogether forgotten. In the Javaneje language I can fafely affirm, that for all the examples given by Mr. MARSDEN, native synonymes, and generally more than one, may easily be supplied. The radical portion of the Malay, however, evidently shews itself the language of a people far below what the Javanese appear to have been previous to the Hindu conversion of both, if I may be allowed such an expression.

The scanty idiom of a race of naked savages as the Malays most probably were, my well be supposed to have wanted such terms as Mr. MARSDEN has adduced as examples, more particularly, as some of them, fuch as loyalty, prudence, time and cause, evidently imply confiderable efforts of abstraction, if one advert to the probable slate of society in which they were ingrafted upon the first scanty idiom of the Malays.

ALL I intend by these observations is to point out the weakness and fallacy of any reasoning formed upon such impersect and limited data as those with which Mr. MARSDEN was furnished; and it is far from my wish to reflect on that cautious and accurate observer, whose opimions are already entitled to the greatest attention and consideration.

Conscious of my inability to do justice to the subject, I willingly drop this disquisition, into which the nature of the subject has almost insensibly led me, and finally closing my essay, submit it to the disprimination and learning of the Afiatic Society, who, I rest fully satisfied, will do ample justice to the motives which have induced me to atcompt this popular view of the flate of the Hindu religion on Buli, and refits first introduction into the oriental islands. (See Note D.)

Sourabaya, Island of Java.

NOTES.

A .- The more recondite portion of Javanese literature is also contained in the Kami, and exactly the same with the Balinese. Jama or Javi, (both are equally correct, the one belonging to the comman language, the other to the language of deference and respect used by inferiors,) and Kami are used by the Javanese as correlative terms; the one expressing the language of the learned, the other the vulgar tongue. When a work is translated from the former it is said to be made Javas. ness of (Jami), hence Jami comes to mean translation on explanation in general. It is exactly similar to our own expression, " to make English of.". The Malays, whose discreture is borrowed from the Arabs, but above all from the Javanese, use it for translation in general, without regard ! to its first meaning. In: proof of this explanation it may be observed, that the term is only applied . to the written language, the whole or almost the whole of, which is more translation. That excellent and accurate writer, Mr. Massess, is much at a loss to make, out the derivation of this word. . I hope the account now given will appear satisfactory to the man whose acquaintance with every thing connected with these countries, is far more accurate and extensive than that of any other ... individual.

B.—Wren I to offer an opinion respecting the history of the Kowi. I would say that it is Sanscrift. deprived of its inflections; and having in their room the prepositions and auxiliary verbs of the vertiscular dialect of Java., We may readily suppose the native Brohmans of that island separated is from the country of their ancestors, through carelessness and ignorance andeavouring to get rid of ? the difficult and complex inflections of the Sunscrit, for the same reason-that the barbarians altered . the Greek and Latin languages to the formation of the modern Romaic and Italian. In progress . of time it seems probable that a number of words sof the resuscular dialact, besides the prepositions . and auxiliary verbs, would creep in, and such a corruption encreasing would naturally enough account for the different states of the Kiwi, more or less modern or obsolete as already mentioned. The Kawi was probably, always a dead language, or il speken, a language, confined to the . pricathood. .

C .- THE most remarkable of these monuments are the temples of Singausani, said to have been . built in 551. Boro Buddha built in 939, and Brambanan. or Prambanan, part of which was . built in 1218 and part in 1288. The second rain is as I s name indicater, a Buddhist temple, and in my opinion the most remarkable refle of Hinduirm on the island. It is a square stone building. consisting of seven ranges of wall, each range decreasing as you ascend, till the building terminates . in a kind of dome. It occupies the whole of a small hill which is shaped to receive the walls, and to . accommodate itself to the figure of the whole structure. The walls, both inside and out, are decerated a with a profusion of mythological ornaments : and an opinion of the size-of the whole building may . be formed from the number of statues of Bundua, which it contains. These are in niches formed ; for them in the walls and amount to \$10, most of them entire. Bunna is represented in a si ting e posture, more than three feet-high, measured in that attitude. This temple is in the district of Kodu. and the choice of its site does credit to the taste of the builders. The country is mountainous ; but ... fertile and highly cultivated, except the aummits of the hills; which are covered with lefty trees. Two beautiful streams run at no great distance from the hill, which is occupied by the temple. Upon . the whole, a more picturesque or beautiful spot could not have been selected. It may be invariably observed, that the Bruhmans have made, choice of the finest portions of the country les the site of their temples.

NOTE.

D.—I ows to the learning of NATA NAGARA, a prince of Sumanap on Madura, well known to our countrymen in this part of the world for his merit and modesty, the most essential portion of the ancient history and literature of these islands contained in this paper. NATA NAGARA has the singular merit of being the only native in our possessions, who understands the ancient character in which the Rams is written, or who has made any proficiency in the knowledge of that language itself. Kami learning has been hereditary in the family of NATA NAGARA for 80 years, one of his ancestors having been instructed in it, by a refugee from Bali, long after it had been usurly extinct on Java.

Extract from the Brata Yoda or Kawi Mahabarat, describing a nocturnal combat between Karna and Gatotkacha.

Trika'ta sau'Gatotkacha kinon mapag Arkasuta Tkap ira Krisna parta manohor moji saktinira San inojaran wawan masamu garjita harsa marak Mawachana bagya yan ana pakon ripatik nrapati

Pakanan iki lana maraki jan haji yogya nika Dadaha ri kalancu baya haturnya matoh hapati Kunan apan iwuh hanrakatani gati harya tamman Si tutuwa tan panunguha manne sigagan sakarau

Na huwusi san Gatotkacha lumad ati kesawa mar Tkap ira yan uru yojara nalap manikin wradaya Heni huni nalanin twasira san paman nasda tannyu Mulati rare niran lumawanin san Awanga pati

Ta karana krisna Parta mawuwas da manneh sakaraa Hasammu kamanosan kaloputan tkapin pannutus Kunan iki sau Gatotkacha mawan sira sigra masoh Mapagi pamuk sau Askasuta tan duha mandak aras

Aptiliwi sarwa senjata wisasa maha stranira
"Mijili tahan distrin mijili chankam anut manohu
Wata rumujak san Arkasuta kowish spinda jammar
Matuda kiri muwah mtu sulah bala Pandawa bah

Irika nasoh si alambana lawan hata raksasasak Wkani Jatasura mati thep nira Bayusuta Yata manasut datan sabala raksasa wira tara Patamone wukuja ka pwa puda raksasa rodra jammar

Irika kala sikappe ken Halambana tan duwa pjah . Tkapira san Gatotkacha mamekka ri tangag ika Ginutukhakan sirennja ri surjudana kagyat hawu Ku ya ta chanal ni warga mu wuwusnira Bimasuta

Apuli harinja wera san almbu sana manika Maka gurilap trisula nika tiksua mawarna udan Datan fulwoh tkapnira Gatotkacha sura tara Ksana tinikal gulu nira muwah ya binonchan hakan

Muwa hamasoh Kalayuda lawan Kalana surasak Agaleka lina ne bapa tkep nica Bayasuta Pwa-ni pjahili mehu Kalana kirmira tar panapa Kurana nika wuyun ksanika tandu muwah ya pjab

Wawan numahsoh hikau Kalana sraugia wanarda wagus Ika namate rawan wka san Arjuna len nulupuy Yata tka sahasa muka samoa lawan Kalana Keana mati de Gatotkacha dinuk sabalania puna

Ri pjahi kan Duratmaka patan siki tan pabisa Muwa humasoh san Angapati tan panaha gumulun Amapag kan panuk prawara Bimasuta tisaya Prasama magantusan pada wisefa tannastra nira

Dana samasor bala nropati karna murud dekukud Binuru huwus hawas tkap-iken bala reksasa sak Kadi Gaja nandaka mulati singha masoh hagalak Hasingha puleh pjah kasnlaya genala tinnja Karananika laya taya manoli halak humannan Krtabbi lakunia len panuaduhe ginola karaush, Kabala tkheu prawira bala korawa sirsa larut Sinusanane sara nupama de wara Pandusuta,

Da irika yan padam suluhi kan bala kurawa ras. Ini bala pandawa murud amit ripi kari layat Swan asammu bahni rudra manke nujwala muntob-aras. Kahimuburan jagat gumasani kurunata kahab.

Mulata wanis ta san Rawi suta kari karwa rata. Karan-nan-ira malas marawase-rata Bimasuta. Ksanika pjah ta sarati Gatotkacha tar pabisa Ikani kudania manrapa rasania wigirna ki

Irika msat Gatotkacha maren gagantara mur Mari mahawan lemah tuwi manandalii mega maya. Irika naras hati oropati karna kalaswana lak Lumiyati muksa san Kalana nata tan nora katon

Karanun-ira nawak mamanahio sara tiksna wara-Hana riruhur ana rihirinan unniwi riharap Mwan niwuri witna rasmira yadin saka wurywana. Atohor mandisma napati sastra lunit mahalar.

Pira ta kunan suweh mropati karna mulut murina. Irika Gatotkacha humunan mentia sakin gagana. Menuchap-akon prayatna saha gorani sabdanira. Tohora dular giap ktuga kantura men samara.

Anktaha san Awanga nata lumiyat rin mega moga ruhur. Dah biyakta san Gatotkacha kalin-iran chitan kawahan mara Sistambisku kachidra demu yanimit tan mulat tri lasit. Lin ma karna tahar makan tumadana maka perina bantata

IN THE ISLAND OF BALL:

De tandwa pasarira saksana wibu tikane rimbyat meja Mungwen madyane ambara wuga agun lir rantakanin darat Tkwan mata masinha nada karano-rin burbu gaswa papak Saksat rudra mamurti kala hamaras rin-uwuh hanirat kaheh

Da yekan pinanah tkap Rawisuta brahmastra muntab muruh Basmin buta gsan rika ksana mijil makin manankar lanit Penpat renyah makin tri wikrama katon tan chandra hasojwala: Kroda krakumasoh harap manugale tangak san awanga-dipa

Kepwan san Rawiputra donilarutin sarvastra tappa miyata Awisti aku pjah tkapnia liniri twas mar tus saras mulat Nakan marmaniran panambuti rikan kunta sadan baswara Yoki pandawa wansa-len-pira tohor manduk hirimbyat meja

Tandwa trus dada san Galotkacha wawan murcha mano saksana Datan irih mahanun sanega tumaddun muusir san angadina Singeh Bimasuta angakara maharap matya manunsir kiwul Kwan lumpat rawiputra las surirana bunlot matingal rata

Kwan tandwa tamaddun mati ratane san kurna kewul sarati Yekan gariita karuwe swara lawan voda san Duryadana Tan manka bala Pandawa lara tidam kanya kukud yanonis Tan wakten wars Bima darma tanaya dan manswa mali prane

TRANSLATION.

PARTA and Kaisna, confiding in the valour of GATOTRACHA, instructed him to meet Karna in Sattle. The son of Bina rejoiced thereat, and desmed himself fortunate in receiving the Prince's commands. "Whether," replied he, "life be preserved, or the body be crushed to atoms in the field of action, your injunctions shall be obeyed." When Kaisna and Agruna heard these words of the King of Purbaya, they were struck with surprize and unable to speak, lost in admiration of his skill in seizing the affections of his seniors, and of the gallantry which prompted him, yet wouth, to meet the experienced KARNA in battle. Karena was touched with compassion for his wouth, and would now fain have repressed his ardour, and forbid him the combat; but the son of BIMA would not be dissuaded, and advanced to meet the King of Awanga; yet not without some district of his strength. He carried with him the choicest wespons. Obedient to his command. · 一篇 以下

some started from his hands, some issued from his mouth and rushed upon his fee. KIRNA was dismayed, and retreating, endeavoured to place himself in a more favourable position. Now the torches of the sons of PANDU were brought forth, and burnt with increasing splendour. There was a Ransara, the son of Jatasuna, whose name was Landana: Jarasuna, the father, had been slain by the hands of Bima. Lambana was attended by a whole army of Butas, who inshed . upon the forces of Garernacha-Butas like themselves. The conflict was mutual and the battle . rased; demon contending against demon. LAMBANA himself encouptering the King of Purboye, & was defeated and slain. The conqueror severing the head from the body, took the former and threw a It in the direction of Suyudana, exclaiming, "O Suyudana here is the head of your relation." Soon the brother of Lambana, whose name was Lambu-Saika, prepared to take revenge and disa. charged a flight of Trisulas, which numerous as rain fell upon his adversaries; but the son of Brua, was not to be dismayed. He opposed the host of adverse . Buties, and at length seizing upon their . leader, he divided his head from his body and dashed it from him. Then advanced to hat le with his . c'emous the chief KALA-YUDA. He stormed with rage, still mindful of the death of his father .- His father Kirmina, an innocent victim, who had fallen by the hands of Bina. Gatotracha soop put . KALL. Y up a to the sword. Then, another Buta shouting, rushed into the babile. His some was . KAIA-SRANGE, in person of perfect beauty. Ban Ban Urawan, the son of Arguna, by Dawi Pa-'1 uzui, had fallen before by his hands. He foined the combatants without delay, but soon met his . death from the King of Purbaye, who now routed the hostile demons in every direction, so that none remained to offer further resistance. KARNA alone encountered the son of BIMA and continued the battle-they contended with missile weapons .- The flying forces of Kama were pursued by the RAKSASAS of GATOTKACHA as an enraged elephant pursues the lion, -Such of the forces of the Kurawans were taken prisoners, were forthwith dispatched. The fugitives could not be rale lied, for the groavs of the wounded and the noise of the feet of the runaways appalled the rest. Close pursued by the Pandus, the Kurana were dispersed in every direction. Even more than terrified, they extinguished their torches for security. But the torches of the Pandus blazed forth, and they added to their own those dropt by the runaways. The torches of the victors seemed as if they would set the appreten on fire, and consume their enemies in the flames. - Kanna deserted by his army stormed with sager. In his chariet he charged the son of BIMA n his, slew his driver, and disabled his horses. The son of Brus flew into the upper region, and seating himself in the white clouds, no longer touched the firm earth. Kanna finding his fee had disappeared, was struck with dismay; confused, he discharged his countless darts, hardly knowing whither, some upwards some downwards, some to the right hand, some to the left, some to the front, and some to the rear .- Dreading an insiduous attack and in anxious expectation of his enemy, he permitted not his eye to wink or to close .- At length Kazwa heard the voice of the Kingtol Pur baya from the clouds warning bim to prepare himself .- As he descended, the sound grew londer and ended like a clap of thunder, adding terror to the field of battle, ... The Ring of Jmanga knew the sound, and calling alond to ble foe. challenged him to descend on the stable earth and meet him. GATOTRACHA in the midst of the clouds,

encreased his stature and magnified his bulk like the God Kalataka who fills the universe.—Enraged, he raised his voice with a shout which seemed to shake the earth.—His aspect was terrible as that of Rudra, threatening to crumble the world to atoms. He bent his bow and discharged a flaming arrow which iffumined the firmament.—Again he increased his stature—bade defince to his foe, and advancing upon him, attempted to sever his head from his body. Karna, whose wespons were nest expended, felt alarmed for his situation and said to himself, "I am destined to fall by the hands of the son of Bira."—At length he had recourse to the divine weapon Kanta. He discharged the blaze ing dart at the son of Bira, which entering his breast, transfixed his body.—The wound arrested the progress of the warrior; but recovering himself for a moment, he again advanced upon his for, resolving he should perish with him. The descendant of the Sux eluded the blow by lesping from his chariot, and the King of Prabaya seizing upon the driver, dragged him along with him to the regions of the dead.—Duryodana and the Kurawa rejoicing at what they beheld, set up a should exultation—not so the chiefs of the Pandu army; they turned pale at the sight, and with them all was lamentation.

NOTE BY THE SECRETARY.

The Episode given above, by the author of the preceding paper, agrees generally with the same as it is narrated in the original Mahabhárat ascribed to Vrása, but it differs from that narrative in so many respects, that it can scarcely be called even a paraphrase of the Sanscrit Poem. It is more probably a translation of some other work of similar name and subject, as the Jaimini Bhárata for instance, which I am told is well known in the south of India, or it has been translated from a version into one of the local dialects, most of which possess a translation or paraphrase of the Mahábhárat. A salight description of the original will tend to corroborate these suggestions.

The combat between the Rácshasa, Gharáteacha, and the Prince Carra, in the course of a mocturnal engagement between the Pán d'ava and Caurava armice, is related in the Diona Parba, or the seventh canto of the Mahábhárat; the description is however much more detailed than in the Cawi poem, and extends through no fewer than 358 stanzas. Agreeably too to the general style of the Sanscrit poem, the story is thrown more into a dramatic or interlocutory form than appears to be adopted in the Cawi poem. The hero of this battle is Carra; he has committed great amongst the Fán dava forces, and at the head of a portion of Duryóde - Lana's army is on the point of gaining a decisive victory—when Gharíteacha is instigated by Calhara to endeavour to arrest his progress. The encouragement given him by Calhara is repeated by Ansuna and the Ráchasa proceeds to the encounter, vaunting and confident of success. Calhara's communications feelings and attempt to repress his artour, do not occur in the original. Gharóteacha is first opposed by the son of Jarasuna, namedin the Sanscrit indifferently Alama mala or Jarasuni; the cause of quarrel and character of this enemy are similarly described in both works, and Gharu Teacha having defeated and decapitated him, presents his head, as described.

Shore, to Suro'dhama, the same name, and the same person also as Duny dhama, the chief of the Durus. In the Sanscrit, GHAT'O'T'CACHA addresses that Prince in nearly the same words as in the Cami, and the commencement of this passage is the only one in which I have been able to detect # close approximation. " Here is your relation" - whose overthrow by me you have beheld - I shalf soon return to you with the head of CARN'A for an offering, for' he adds, quoting a well-knows text, " Priests, princes and women are not to be approached without a present;" the analogy in this case therefore being limited to the first three or four words. Guar o'T CACRA then presses forward to encounter Carn'a, and a furious battle ensues between them and the forces under their command. CARN'A begins to recede, when another Rácchasa, named in the original ALAYUDHA, and in the Kawi, Kalayudha comes to his assistance, burning for revenge upon Buima, the father of GHATOTCACHA who had formerly clain Baca, Ki'RMI'RA, and HIRIMBA, kindred Ra'csHASAS, and carried off Hinimaa, the daughter of the latter; ALAYUDHA is first opposed at a disadventage by Buina, and the Pandava Princes hasten to his aid, but the demonstill prevailing, CRY HINA directs GHAT'O'T'CACHA to desist from following up his advantages against CARR'A, and to relieve the Princes contending with his fellow fiend. The disposition of the fight is accordingly changed and the two Racibusus encounter each other whilst Canna is opposed by his Pa'n p'ava brethren. None of which incidents are noticed in the translation of the Cawi composition. ALAYUDHA is slain by GHAT'O'T CACHA who then resumes his attack upon CARNA-after, a sufficient portion of tumult and havock, and a plentiful expenditure of ammunition both human and divine, the conflict terminates in the death of Cann's in a manner much the same as is described above-a compressed translation of this part of the poem, for it is impossible to do justice to the prolixity and reiteration of the original, will perhaps be regarded as the most satisfactory test of the resemblance or dissimilitude of the Sansorit and Cami poems, and I therefore subjoin it.

TRANSLATION.

SANJATA. - When GHAT O'T CACHA found that CARN'A meintained the combat undismayed, he armed himself with a mighty shaft, and hurling it at the horses and charioteer of the Prince, slew them and instantly ranished into the air.

Derraramenta.—Tell me then Sanjaya what belef my children, contending with so insidious

SANJATA.—The disappearance of the Ra'cshasa filled all the sons of Curu with dismay, and they despaired of their valiant champion, exposed to combat with an invisible enemy; but the hero skilled in fight, scattered with prompt and unwearied hand his countless and pervading arrows—they filled the beavens as it were with a cloud, and spread such impenetrable gloom that Ghar'o'r'cacha no donger beheld the movements of the Prince. Then, oh monarch? we saw in the sky a magick metsor of termendous and infernal form, glowing with red and fiery splendour, and darting blazing tonches

IN THE ISLAND OF BALL.



and incessant shower of arrows, darts, mass and battle ares; swords edged with flame; javelite with a hundred points; scorching rockets, massive monatsins, loud crashing thunderbolts, and disagness with a hundred spires burning as they whirled along. The shefts of Carra e encountered the storm in vain, and then arose the cries of dying elephants and horses, the crash of chariots and "the grouns of men. The troops of Durnodhana stood appalled at the sight; their spirits sunk within them, and disorder spread throughout their ranks, but awe of Durna for a while suppressed their page.

The shower of weapons still continued, and the broken ranks were assailed by howling Jackalle a easer to prey upon our falling troops—then rushed forward a host of fiends with tongues of fire and a casanguined teeth—in sized-ke-mountains they moved along, and as they advanced they overwhelmed the army with a fresh design of mighty-and destructive weapons. Horsely elephants and chariots sunk beneath the hurricane, and the bravest heroes lay mangled and breathless on the plain. The Cauravas flesh, exclaiming, "Indica and the Gods fight for our fosc."

. t. r

Such was the general confusion that friends and enemies knew not each other, and the sons of Curu and Pa'n's u, mingled terror-struck indiscriminately together. Dread was the darkness—the four quarters of the world were alike undiscernible, and the illusory combustion of the sky alone illumined the scene. Then I beheld Carn'a undaunted and alone, receiving the shower of super-natural weapons on his breast, and launching his mighty shafts at once at the phantom and the fiend. Burning with shame at the prospect of defeat, and prepared to encounter with fortifule every change of fate. The chiefs of Sindhu and Vahlica witnessing Carn'a's untemerble resolution, did him homage, auguring from it the final discomfiture of the Rachasa. The combat continued and Ghat'o'tcacha discharged a rocket set round with discusses, which killed Carn'a's four horses at once. The Caurans seeing him on the ground and exposed to perish, now thought the moment arrived, when he should have recourse to the weapon that could alone triumph over such super-human and hostile arms.

They therefore addressed him, "Destroy, oh Carn'a! the demon, kill him with the fatal shaft, or the race of Cunu is no more. What fear is there of Bhima or Arjuna, that this Racshasa should not be stain. If he escape not, Carn'a will still lead us to victory against the sons of Cunti: kill him with the shaft, the boon of Indra. Save your allies before this interminable night shall further be prolonged, for every hour it lasts our mortal vigous wanes, whilst the Racshasa derives new strength and provess from its duration."

Acts of Guaro reacus. Long had be reserved this beauteous and splendid dart; the gift of Innua. .An exchange for the breast-plate and ear-rings of his birth, and created for the destruction of Azzona. Tiectwas the strong-girt arrow in its flight, tremulous like the tongue of a wild elephant, and fatal as the sister of death. When GARN's raised the weapon the Rac'suasa knew his peril, and bulky as the Péndhus mountain prepared to fly. Cann's raised it with both his hands; the etherial beings shouted aloud, the winds roused and pealing thunders shock the heavens. The arrow reduced the Phantom to seles, and piereing the heart of GHAT o'TCACHA forced a passage through his bady, and then winging its glittering course aloft, took its place amongst the constellations: with battered arms and mangled body, darkling as a cloud or mountain, precipitous the mounter fell; but ere he reached the ground he made a last expiwing effort for his Pandava allies, and expanding his enormous balk he covered, and crushed on his descent a division of our forces, thus faithful to his friends even in his death. Then shouted our chiefs and the drams and clarious echoed the sound. The Courses hestened to behold their champion, and CARN'A was lauded by our host as was Inna by the Marute on his victory over VRITRA'SUR. Then they brought your son in triumph to the field rejoicing in the fall of his foes. The PAN'D'A YAS wite , nessing Guar o reachs like a fellen mountain prostrate on the earth were filled with approx and diamey, and their eyes were suffused with tears.



III.

ACCOUNT OF A JOURNEY

TO THE

Sources of the Jumna and Bhagirathi Rivers.

By JAMES B. FRASER.

(Communicated by the Most Noble the Parsident.)

N the 24th of June, my * brother having received the orders of Government to proceed to Gerwhal, we left Seran, † (the residence of the young Rajah of Bischar) where for some days we had remained in expectation of instructions.—And cressing that portion of the roots of the snowy mountains whence † Meral-Ca-Canda range arises, and keeping our course down through the valley of Sambracet, we reached the banks of the river Paber, and encamped on the right bank, opposite to the fort of Raingerh, where for some days we were detained by the difficulty of procuring carriage for our necessary baggage, on the route to Sirinagar. On the 5th of July, we left Raingerh, and kept down-

[.] William Fraser, Firet Affiftant, Delhi Refidency.

is fireated, in the glen through which the ziver Setlej-flows; about 3 miles above its fireans, upon the mountain fide.

Moral Ca Canda is a large, and very noble mountain which fleetches in a continuous but irregular range, and under various names, from the snowy mountains above Rompur and Seran, quite down to Irkl. It is an interesting range, because it is that which divides the waters of upper Hindostan. All these raining from its cashern side, st wing through the Girri, Paber, Tonse and Jumna, into the Ganges and the bay of Bengale while those from the western aspect, run by the Setles and Indus, into the Indian ocean.

ward along the course of the Paber till its junction with the Tonse, and then followed that river, crossing it by a bridge of ropes, nearly to the spot where it is met by the Loha Cundi range, which we crossed considerably to the northward of its stream, and on the 9th July we reached the village Cotha, situated on the right bank of the river Jumna about 2 miles above its bed. The fort of * Jauntgerh is not far distant on the opposite side, and the road to Sirinagar crosses the river a little way below the village.

As I had much anxiety to visit Jumnotri and Gangotri, the sources of the rivers Jumna and Ganges, (or rather of the Bhagirathi, the principal facred source of the Ganges) places of peculiar sanctivy to the Hindus; I profited by an opportunity better than could ever again occur, and parting from my brother, who pursued his way to Sirinagar, took, with as sew attendants as was consistent with prudence and necessary comfort, the road which leads to the first mentioned place.

direction to N. E., following the deep indentings of the ravines and valleys, that furrow the mountain fide and pour their streams into the Jumna, which winds far below; sometimes it is varied by sharp as cents and descents, but keeps nearly on a level till we reach a pass or gorge, named Chamri-Ci-Dhar, the end of a losty range that coming in a westward direction continuous from Burusti-Ci-Dhar, ends in the Jumna. On our way to this point we passed through one or two villages, but the cultivation is neither extensive nor promising. From this station an extensive view would have been obtained including Birat, Badraj, and several of the hills above the Dehra Dûn, as well as the extensive

^{*} Jauntgerh is the place to which Buulbunder Sing settested after the evacuation of Kalanga, and from whence Major Balbock was repulled by him.

⁴ From Cake, we had bearings of Janus, Biret and Badraje

range, on which Jauntgurh is lituated, with a general view of the course of the Jumna, from the snowy mountains to Calf: but this was prevented by a thick fog which enveloped the tops of the mountains, and only now and then gave to view a peak, glimmering through milt. From hence we chiered on a very deep descent into the bed of a small but rapid stream, called Gothar-Cl-Gdd'h. The valley or hollow of which this forms the drain, is fingularly formed by the meeting of two hills, or ranges by a small ridge, no great distance from the river; and the mouth is far more narrow than the hollow above. It contains the Bander-C'hat, (or division) and there is a considerable quantity of detatched cultivation, wheat, barley, rice, conton, and a grain, called *China, resembling bird-seed, scattered through it; the rice here as in other parts of the hills is neatly cultivated on levelled ledges, over which water is led in small courses, taken from the stream far above. It is a wild and rugged ravine, and the hills rife very fuddenly to their height.

The descent from Chamrt Ca-Ghát is very irregular and zig-zag, severe and painful; passing through Cot'hal, a village destroyed by the Gorc'has; we crossed the Got'har nullah, and reached the village of Lak'ha Man'd'al, situated almost on the banks of the river. This village is claimed both by Gerwhal and Sirmor; it cultivates the lands of each state, and pays tribute to both; it seems entirely appropriated to the maintenance of several temples, and their priess, and there are some fine rich pieces of land on the banks of the Jumna, as well as of a nullah, a short way surther on, set aside for this holy purpose; for which the village is assessed by each state. There is a neat temple to Siva, a place of worship to the sive brothers, Bhim Sen, Arjun, Yudhisht hir, Sahadon, Nacula, known by the name of the Pandavan, a temple to Bairam, one to Parasuram, and an old ruined one to Maha Deo, under the name of

Panicum miliaceum,

Cédar, with some curiously carved stones representing the Hindu deties; two figures in stone representing Arjun and Bhimsen, are remarkably well executed, but their faces have been defaced, it is said by the Rohillas, in an incursion of old into the hills. One curious stone represents in relief a large assemblage of Hindu divinities, among whom Ganesa, Durga, Bhavani &c. &c. were readily recoginised. A narrow cavern leading under ground through the rock from the village to the river side, used, it is said, by the people of the country in times of danger, was shewn us, but we did not explore it.

OPPOSITE to this village, Barni-Ci-Ga d'h, a large stream which has its rise in the losty peak of Bongi-Ca-Tiba debouches into the Jumnu. In the Ravine we observed a curiously situated house, or fort, built upon a small rocky eminence, quite insulated in the middle of the stream. Its name was Biraltu, and it belonged to a zemindar of some consequence, Bhu'v Sinh.

Our route now lay along some table land just on the river bank: passing Bandergerri, a ruined fort on a small rising ground above the road, we descended to Necral-Ci-Gadh, which stream is said to be the boundary between Gerwhal and Sirmor; but there appears to be a fort of land debateable around Lakha-mandal, which contains some spots of land, far richer than that generally met within the hills. Necral-Ci-Gadh is very considerable, and is said to take its rise in Thiran-Ca-Tiba, nearly two days journey to the N. W.; its immediate banks are rocky and wooded, and much sine alder wood grows on them, as well as on those of the Jumna.

AFTER a sharp ascent up a bare rocky hill, a rough path along its face brought us to Banc'hauli, a large and apparently populous village, high above the river, and where we rested for the night. The place of

repose given us was in a square, inclosed with a high wall, containing a temple to Maha' Deo, who, as we approach the sacred places, and the wild snowy peaks, his peculiar residence, is worshipped with almost exclusive devotion; the temple was neat, much in the same style as those usually met with among the hills, with Chinese over hanging roofs, much carved wood work; and the doors covered with carved brass. The village has the appearance of having once been more consisterable; the chief zemindar or Seana' (as he is called) when questioned with regard to its population, averred that it had but 28 shouses, and might contain about 100 inhabitants; but his answers were hesitating, obscure and provaricating; and I suspect he believed that the questions put were preparatory to some assessment or tax, which prevented the truth from being told. I should have thought the village must have contained sull 250 inhabitants; it is not exactly a part of any purgunnah, but in some measure is attached to Rewaen.

At 7 o'clock next morning we left Banc'hauli, and proceeded still along the left hand face of the hill above the Jumna, sollowing the deep indentings, and long rounds of the vallies, with various irregular ascents and descents, till, by a very rough and clambering path, we reached the top of Gangani-Ci-Dha'r, in a point called Gangani-Ca Gha't. This balcony is very highly elevated, and commands both upwards and downwards, a most extensive and noble view, though partially obscured by clouds. From hence we obtained the sirst distinct view of Bender Puch'h, the mountain, from a part of which the Jumna has its rise; it shews in two grand peaks, both very white in snow, and of great magnitude and height. The bed of the Jumna looking downwards, is narrow, deep and rocky, save where the few green spots around Lakha man'dal, relieve the eye; upwards it runs in a far more fertile country, with table land and cultivation on its banks and several willages; while the hills slope more easily down to the level part, co-

vered with a variety of forest scenery, and spotted with fields. Further up they frown and close, and are of darker-hue beyond, and above all Jamnotri towers above the clouds.

A ROCKY, tangled and unfrequented path brought us to a further ghat or pals, where information was given, that a valley of confiderable magnitude lay to our left, firetching from the Jumna to the westward, and in hopes of seeing so unusual a thing in these rugged hills, we lest the road to make the trial. We were however disappointed upon reaching the ridge, whence it was thought it might be seen, nothing appeared, save the lower part of a ravine entirely of the same nature as the rest of the country, and which has here the name of Sait-Gari-Ci-Gadh. Above it is called Rama Serai, and I obtained only the sollowing particulars descriptive of the place.

The old and ruined fortress called Sircot, is situated on a high Tiba, of the same name, at the end of the losty range Ce'dar-Canta, which stretches down from one shoulder of Bender Puch'h, two or three cosfurther up in this mountain; the stream, Rama, has its source at a spot called Shealu, and is joined by several others from the sides of this as well as from Sircot, and from the range which forms the other side of the vally, called Renai-Ci-Dhar. Just at the end of this last mentioned range, which was in view from the point we stood on, the valley of Rama Serai commences, and runs up to Sircot for a distance of from 5 to 7 cos, probably about 9 miles; the direction, judging from that of the mountains, and position of the points we see, along with their formation given, may be nearly N. E. and S. W. The breadth from 1 mile to $2\frac{1}{2}$, and it is level throughout.

FORMERLY this valley, which contains one that or division, was well-cultivated, and contained many populous villages; now like the rest of

Gerwhal it has fallen much to decay, and four half ruined hamlets alone remain; these are Gundiat, Perál, Cimola, and Celar; the two former are near the head of the plain. The whole forms a part of the district or purgunnah of Rewaen, and had been given by the late Raja PARDUMAN SAH, to his brother PRITHUM SAH, who lived for 6 or 7 years in several parts of it; his chief residence, however, was at Gundiat. The Raja himself frequently came here with his brothers to hawk in the valley; they rode upon Gounts, or Bhotia poneys, and killed partridges, which are there abundant.

From the foot of Sircot proceeds another stream which runs in a valley, named Gadu-Gád'h, and which, after a course of about 6 miles, joins the Tonse, nearly the same distance above Anhul. This is also said to be a fine level, and formerly well cultivated valley, from ½ to a mile and half wide; but far inferior to Ráma Serái, which seems to be allowed the largest and finest in the whole country, excepting the Dún, and to have been considered a place of delightful retirement for the court in the days of the greatness of Gerwhál.

REGAINING the road, and passing through the ruined village of Thalli, we descended a steep rocky path, very irregular and zig zag, to the bed of Sárigári-Gádh. The mouth, through which the water has forcibly worn its way between opposing rocks, is narrow, and has probably yielded to the force of torrents much slower than the soil of the rocks behind, which may, in some measure, perhaps, account for the singularly different nature of Ráma Serái valley from those ravines which universally divide the hills. The stream is a fine copious one,

The rock here, as well as that we have to-day descended, is principally lime-stone, very hard above, and mixed with sand stone. That

about the village of Bankhauli, and met with in our ascent to Gangani-Ci-Dhar, is also lime signe under various shapes; among others is a curious concretion, to all appearance like the irregular masses of mortar and gravel found in the walls of old buildings; sometimes it was of great hardness and in large masses, at others, as if only forming into them. Common and micaceous slate are also met with, and a very white soft silvery earth, that feels soapy between the singers. The top of Gangani-Ci-Dhar exhibits a singular appearance; totally denuded of soil, the rock is cut into strange forms and sissures by the action ofstroms:—it is a compound of sand and lime-stone, and where there is little of the last to bind and harden the sormer, the violence of the weather has worn it away.

FROM hence, the road winds pretty confiantly along the river bank : the heat was excessive both in our descent, and in the low grounds. A few miles onwards we passed Maungral-Gerh, an old ruin, which stands on a peninsular rock, from 150 to 200 feet high, boldly projecting into the river; it was lately occupied by Dhaman Chand, Ahmed SINH, and DAULAT SINH, who were the Rotillas of the Raja of The term Ratilla, as far as I could understand, is ap-Gerwhal. plied to a fon of the Raja, born of a flave woman; and this residence was entirely appropriated to these connections of the royal family; it appears to have been of considerable extent, but con-Aructed much like the usual houses of the small Thacurs we have seen in our tour; it is now however in ruins, having been burnt three years ago by some discontented zemindars. Just above this place, the remains of a Sango, or Bridge, which kept up communication with the village near Maungeal-Gerk, are yet vilible.

We passed several villages—Ishna and Bercot on the eastern side, and Pothi (ruined) with Sunside (a single house) on the western or right bank; and saw the several considerable streams

flowing from the Baugi and Sucral mountains; and croffed Binal-Ci-Gadh, a large stream, which has its rife in Sarulal-Ca-Tiba, about seven cos hence.

There is a great deal of fine rice cultivation in the lower part of this valley, which is flat and rich; at the time we passed it, the zemindars, their women and children, were busily employed in planting rice, and were cheered in their labour by a rude band of singing and dancing men with their instruments; who proceeded forthwith to salute and welcome the strangers. The natives are remarkably partial to this uncouth amusement, and singers and dancers are met with in every village. Here the villagers appeared very numerous, and were particularly savage and wild in their appearance, both men and women laughing like ideots as we passed.

A SHARP afcent up the end of *Dhalu Dhar*, and a short progress along its face brought us to the village of *Duckheat*, our station for the night. It is neat and of considerable size, and is one of several in this valley that form the chief part of the *Benal That*. From here too we enjoy a good view up the *Benal* valley, which, though not very level, is remarkably well cultivated; much rain fell this evening, and our quarters were not the most comfortable.

HERE several * Gorc'ha soldiers joined us, to all'appearance in a very wretched state, and solicited service, at all events protection, from the

VHEN the power of the Gore has was broken, and their troops were taken prisoners or scattered, those, is the further districts thus connected, chose rather to domesticate with their wives and families, then put the hazard of retreating through a country of hostile savages, ripe for revenue on a tyrannical

^{*} Ix was usual, during the Government of that people, to station parties in the different districts, for the purpose of collecting the revenue; and in progress of time, many of them took daughters of the nemindars in marriage, not always with the good will of the latter, but the connexion formed a tie because the conquerors and conquered, which, though far weaker from the savage and treacher one ture of the people, than a similar one in most other countries would have been, was still sufficient during the confidence to guarantee life, and prevent the marder of the Son-in-law.

violence they dreaded from the natives, should they be lest in the hills after the English might quit them; they excused themselves from attending us to Gangotri, on the plea of want of arms and cloads, which we could not supply them with; probably, they were not desirous of a long and satiguing journey, they therefore were dispatched with a note to my brother at Sirinagar, with a sew sepons, in the service of the Fauj-Dar of Rewsen, as a protection from insult or harm.

July 12th.—This morning we were joined by Govind Sing Buisht, the chief, or Fauj-Dar Rewaen, who came to accompany and conduct us through the district under his direction; he is a man of high cast, and considerable consequence, and has had the entire administration of the extensive purgunnah of Rewaen; in fact, he has of late been more like an independent Prince, than a governor; for, in so impracticable a country, he could not easily be called to strict account, either by the Raja or his conquerors; he had also been on good terms with the Gorc'ha chiefs, owing, we understood, much of consequence, to

and fallen master. Others too, in like manner, though not enjoying the security resulting from any such tie, chose rather to trust to the protection of some zemindur, whom they might have known and perhaps obliged, and by whom they believed their lives would not be attacked, than stake their safety on a more dangerous light, though loss of property in either care was certain.

Thus, individuals of this wretched people were found in every district of the hills, and every one stript of his property, even to the necessary cloaths to cover them from the weather. Many were still more deplorably situated; some, wounded and neglected, were languishing unassisted, in want even of necessaries; others had fied to the jungles, to escape the massacre their comrades fell victims to, and had for a long time subsisted on roots and fruits. Even the marriage tie did not always ensure good erestment; and not unfrequently, when the terror of consequences ceased, the zemindars reclaimed their daughters, and forced them to leave their husbands, although the stipulated prices had been paid them. Several curious cases were referred to us for decision, in which, of course, nothing could be done, but to leave the matter to the uninfluenced decision of the lady herself; and it must be said, that where the contract was broken, it generally appeared that the loss of the mency, the price of the female, (from 12 to 16 Rupees,) was the most grievous part of the injury. Thet, he's never would restore, arguing, that the contract had been originally made in great measure by force on the Corce has side, and that one or two years' possession was sufficient to cancel it, provided it was the woman's wish an to do. Many however of these women left their families and country, and followed the party, with their Gorc'he lords, perfectly voluntarily, and appeared not only fully equal to the fatigues of the march, but were of the greatest use to their husbands, occasionally carrying their children, and kisaye gooking their meals, when arrived at the evening's ground.

them; he is a fine looking man, far superior in appearance to the people of the hills; who, in fact, pay him much respect, and seem quite devoted to him.

We ascended the end of Dhu'lu' Dhar, and crossed it, and reached the banks of Bediar-Ga'dh, a large rapid stream, in size nearly equal to the Girri; which has its rise in a high peak, called Bachu'ncha; we crossed it on a very ugly bridge, called Shelli-ca-Sango, consisting of two pine-trees of no very large size, thrown over a deep chasm, in which, far below, the river runs with great violence, and which being slippery, gave but uncertain footing; at the top of a short rocky afcent above this bridge, we reached the village Nagwa'n, which is of respectable size, and which gives name to a that or division; here is one of Govind B'hisht's residences; it was once a populous and tolerably sultivated division; but most of its villages are now in ruins: five are still inhabited besides itself—Palu, Shealwa, Cu'rfala, Than, and Phuldár.

THE opposite side of the river is desolate and uncultivated, though the ruins of several villages are perceptible. The Patrain Nullah, nearly opposite, contains much level land, all now waste.

Just opposite the mouth of Bediar-Gad'h, there is a bridge across the Jumna, and on the other side, in a rock at the foot of the hill, in the bed of the river, is shewn a spring of water, which they say is of the waters of the Bhagirat'hi, and of which the following tale is told:

THERE yet exists near this a place of worship facred to Maha' Deo, in which, in the old time, a Brahmin of great sanctity ministered. This holy person every day went to the Bha'girat'hi, said to be a full day's journey from hence, to perform his ablutions in its sacred stream, till

great age rendered this exercise impossible, when he prayed that some 182 means might be afforded him of continuing this act of devotion; his prayer was heard, and he was defired to drop his handkerchief in the Bhagirat'hi, and whereever that should appear on the Jumna banks, there to wash in full confidence of that being of the waters, of the holy skeam.

THE Brahmin is gone, but the waters retain their fanctity in the estimation of the country, which confidently believes they are the effect of a miracle; a miracle ingenuously and successfully contrived, to continue to laziness or inability, the odour of sanctity derived from penance, without its pains.

FROM Nagwar we ascended at times rapidly, at times gently, through thin fir-wood; and this gently rifing country quite waste, but once cultivared, and all capable of being so, to the village of Shealwa, much gone to decay

CROSSING the Curfala valley, in which is the village of that name, we climbed a sleep ascent to the gorge of a pass, called Canda ca G'hat, in a ridge continuous dome from a high peak, named Tu'nal. From this point, a water fall below a mass of snow in the Benderpuch'h mountain, is very plainly seen, which we are informed is Jumnotri; it did not appear more than a long day's journey from us.

THROUGH a various wood of oaks, firs, rhododendron, &c. along the face of the hill, high above the river, we reached the point where commences our descent to Páliá-Gádh, which forms the outlet to the waters, of one of the most terrifick and gloomy valleys I have ever then. losty peak Bachuncha stretches a rugged ridge to the fouthward which joins Tunal, (the lower part of which we croffed,) and by these ridges

is formed the hollow of Cot'ha, the chief ravine of which runs down from hearly the top of Bachuncha, and is joined by smaller but equally rough clefts from the back, which unite their waters below, and roll a rapid and large torrent to the Jumna.

. On one of these ravines, are seen small hills of stones, resembling places of worship; supposed to be the residence of devatus or spirits, who amuse themselves with inveigling away human beings to their wild abodes. It is faid, that beauty in either fex is the object of their particular predilection; that they remorfelefsly feize on any, whom chance or imprudence may place within their power, and whose spirits become as theirs, when deprived of their corporeal frame; many inflances of -fueh occurrences were given: on one occasion, a young man who had wandered near their haunts, being carried in a trance to the valley, heard the voice of his own father, who some years before had been finited away, and who now recognised his fon. Paternal affection it appears was stronger than the spell he was bound by, and instead of rejoicing at the acquifition of new prey, he recollected the forlorn state of his family, thus deprived of their on'y remaining support; he begged and obtained the pardon of his fon, who was difmill d with an injunction of strict silence and secrecy; forgetting however his vow, he was deprived of speech; and as a self punishment, he cut out his tongue with his own hand. This man, it was faid, was still alive, and I defired he should be brought to me; but he never came, and I was afterwards told, he had lately died.

Several persons have approached the precincts of these spirits, and they who have returned have generally expressed the same seelings; and have uttered some prophesy; they aver, that they sall into a swoon and between sleeping and waking, hear a conversation, or rather

are sensible of impressions, as if a conversation had passed, which generally relates to some suture event. Indeed this prophetic faculty is one of the chiefly remarkable attributes of the place. The officiating Brahmins, sometimes venture surther than the vulgar, and are savoured with communications of suture import. It is said they foretold the missortunes and death of the late Raja Parduman Sah; the loss of his kingdom and life at Dehra Dun, and the commencement or rather completion of the Gorkha Raj. The awe and horror which the natives entertain for this place, is great and remarkable. They affert the impossibility of penetrating the valley to any considerable height, and that none, who had attempted it, ever returned without the loss of reason. I believe the physical obstacles to ascending the hill would be enough to prevent success.

July 13th.—From the nullah (which is crossed by a single stick) we rose to the village of Palia, where we rested for the night, and which is situated above the nullah called Pulia Gadh, and not far below the gorge of the glen of Cotha. It is neat and clean and of confiderable fize, and has less the appearance of decay than most of those we have passed, but is not so thriving or large as Duckheat, our last night's station; it is surrounded by a sew fields and ledges. of cultivation which occupy the remainder of the spot on which the village stands, but they are of no great extent, nor is there any more near at hand; we took notice, that many of the inhabitants were particularly fair, and they were fine flout looking men. The scenery in this day's march has assumed a character far more savage than we have remarked in any part of our tout, there is less wood, more rock, and the mountains rife more fuddenly to their heighth. without affording the possibility of cultivation, even in the narrowest ledges; the weather too is darker, and the rain which all day had

threatened, fell with loud burits of thunder, which was awfully reverberated from rock to rock: and, during the night, more than once the found was heard of fragments from the brows of the mountains crafting down to the depths below; our quarters were good, in a temple, neat and clean, and fecure from the weather.

We life Pália with a fine morning, after a rainy night; following the Pália e id in carly to its mouth, we turned to our left and followed our courfe a before, up the river fide, ascending till the path was from 2 to 300 yards above its stream; the road hence is very bad, to Afari Gádh, a small stream, that rises from one of the smaller peaks of Bachunchu; at its mouth there is a peninfulated rock of confiderable heighth, on which there is an old fort, called Afari Gerh; the rock is connected with the mountains over-hanging the river by a low neck of land, which is cultivated. At the bottom of the rock; and in the bed of the river, there are feveral small springs of hot-water, which we went to see; some of these sources, we observed, arose with considerable force from the furface of the earth, quite close to the folid rock, giving a stream of 3 or 4 fingers thickness, and much came trickling down from between the lamina of the rock, of which the hill is formed. These lamina are in large white flakes, and confift; I believe, entirely of quartz; they form an angle of about 65 to 70, with the plane of the horizon. The water is beautifully clear, it is more than blood-warm, and is strongly impregnated with acid: it has much of the smell common to sulphureous forings, and is probably impregnated with this substance, and with iron; for the rocks around were tinged and incrusted with a red matter, refembling ruft of iron mixed with clay or lime. Quite close to the warm iprings, and in the stream they form, a cold one bubbles up, but the mixture is so immediate, that it is impossible to say, whether the acid, which it also contains, is communicated from the warm water:

its imell and taste, however, resembled the other, and around its squree upon the rock, there was a collection of scum, formed of green slime; and the red concretion, before mentioned; this was found in their united stream, until they reached the river; from the manner in which this water issues from the rock, it would seem, that its source must be in the body of the rock above, but there is no other appearance whatever to lead to a conjecture respecting its formation; in the course of the Jumna, however, there are many such springs of warm water.

A ROUGH ascent and descent brought us to a bridge, which, about a mile from Asari Genh, crosses the Jumna, here diminished to a small but rapid torrent. The bridge is laid from one large stone to another across a chasm, about 15 to 16 seet broad. through which the stream slows with a violence that would quickly prove fatal to any one falling into it. Hence the road rifes on the left bank of the river, and passes through the small and poor village of Terkels, and among scattered and ragged fields of cultivation, to the village of Cuphera, which has been a large and populous place, but is now in lamentable decay. There is here a temple to VISHNU, under the name of Nác Rájá; and we found the villagers preparing to carry the image, with fongs and dancing, to be bathed at Jumrotii, an annual ceremony: Here the hills about the river open out a little, though there is little cultivation or room for any. Pália is almost the highest village on the opposite or right bank, and the whole tract between the Jumna and Tonse, said to be a space of 30* cos, is a will and savage herp of rocky barren peaks, and dark impervious ravines. On the Tonfe, however, even near to its lource, there are many villages, and a good deal of land under culture. The distance between the Junio and integral his,

This distance is in all probability much eneggerated. I have uniformly found distances processed by report frequently to wear double the truth, especially when the road was affinelly, the true finitum perhaps does not exceed 25 miles herizontal distance—nay, probably is much less.

at this point, is faid not to exceed one day's journey; but from Curfait, the nearest village to Jumnetry, the country, from the one river across to the other, we are told is very difficult, and the road much longer; three days' journey, through a country in which there are no inhabitants, nor any supplies procurable, forming a part of it. This, however, we believed to be exaggerated, as our guides appear quite afraid of the difficulties of the hills, and delight in communicating their alarm, and throwing all obstacles in our way.

Pursuing our way along ridges of abandoned cultivation, we crossed the 'hinghal-ci-Gád'h; the banks of which are dangerous on either side, and one step is particularly so, as the path leads over a narrow ledge of rock, over which another projects, leaving a height so insufficient, as to render it necessary to creep on all fours, to pass through the precipice. A circuitous descent brought us to the village Curfali, chiesly in ruins; and a road similar to that we have of late been used to, brought us to Rána, the village where we are to remain during the night; it has been a very short day's journey, and the reason given, was, that no resting place for the night intervenes between this village and that of Cursan, which was stated to be 8 cos distant, and forms one day's work of itself.

IMMEDIATELY opposite to this village, there is seen the remains of one very wildly situated on the brow of a precipice overhanging the Jumna, fully one thousand see: in height. There is a very curious winding path-way down its sace to the river bed; its name is Cothar, and I believe it was, and remains little better than a den of thieves.

July 4th.—A FATH, very fimilar to that of yesterday, led us through the mined village of Baria to the conslicence of two streams, the Dúcean cí Gád'h and the Bhim cí-Gád'h; the sommer a small one, the latter

is large and rapid, and little inferior in fize to the Jumna; it rifes has range, we are told, that springs from Sameru Parbat, and we cross it on our way to Gangotri. A steep ascent at first up a bare hill, and afterwards through a fine old forest, and huge fragments of rock, brought us to an open space, on the northern side of a ridge just sacing Benderpuck'h. From this point, we enjoyed a far more perfect view of this great mountain than we have had, or than was likely to occur again, and, though our close vicinity to it, and comparatively low situation, act unsavourably for displaying the full height, it still appears prodigious.

Two lofty and massy peaks rise high above the rest, deep in snow; from which all the inferior ridges appear to take their rise; they are connected low down by a sharp neck; their South and S. E. exposure is the least sleep, and bears a great depth of pure unbroken snow; little or no rock is seen, except at a sew points in the ridge connecting the peaks, where it is too sharp and steep for snow to lay, and here it appears of a red colour; here and there, losty precipices are observed in the snow itself, where the lower parts have melted and the upper masses have given way, sliding down to the ravines below, leaving a face of snow several hundred feet high, and shewing the depth of that which has accumulated for ages.

The formation and course of the valley we have journeyed thro', and the direction of the ridges, as they break off from this great centre, are from hence finely traceable. From a point of our right, as we look towards the mountain, a ridge strikes off to the south and west, and ends nearly at the junction of Bhim-ci-Gád'h, with the Junca; this ridge is called Cailaru; to the west of this, in our front, another large mass runs down, called Damancandi, and sorms between itself and the Cailaru, a basin whence runs a large stream called the Oúnta-

Gunga. Further to the westward and considerably to our lest, a range consisting of many high and irregular masses, takes its immediate rise from Damini Matha (a continuation of Benderpuch'h) and forms the western side of the valley, closing up the view; between this range, and Dumancandi, the Jumna is formed, from many sources in the snew. The Unta gunga unites at the point of a level piece of land which stretches from the soot of Dumancandi; which latter range forms thus the division between the two basons, and rivers, which are nearly of equal size.

THE name of Benderpuch'h properly applies, only to the highest peaks of this mountain; all the subordinate masses have names independent; Jumnotri has reference solely to the sacred spot, where worship to the goddess, is performed.

Though only two are seen, the top of Benderpich's is said to be formed of sour peaks, in the cavity contained between which tradition places a lake or tank of very peculiar sanctive; no one has ever seen this pool, for no one has ever attempted to ascend these prodigious peaks. Besides the physical difficulties, there is one to be encountered far more conclusive to the superstitious and blindly obedient Hindu. The goddess has especially prohibited any mortal to pass that spot appointed for her worship. A sugger, once in attempting to reach Junnotri lost his way, and continued ascending the mountain till he reached the snow, when he heard a voice enquiring what he wanted; and upon his answering, a mass of snow detatched itself from the hill side, while the same voice desired him to descend and worship where that rested; that Junna was not to be approached, or intruded on in her recesses; that he should publish this, and return no more under pain of death. If suspect indeed that this prohibition is unnecessary to prevent an af-

cent, to, or near the top of any of these snows peaks. The extreme sleepness, the rugged nature of the rock where it is bare, and the slippery smoothness of the snow, are undependent of the extreme heighth, and satigue to be borne, sufficient obstacles.

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The existence of such a lake rests therefore entirely on tradition and probably some obscure legend from the Sástras; for it would appear that all this mountainous tract with its various cliffs and vallies, is frequently referred to as the fcene of mythological story, and to one of these tales, this mountain owes its name. Benderpuch'h signifies monkey's tail. It is faid that Hanuman after his conquest of Lanca (or Ceylon) when he had fet that island on fire, by means of a quantity of combultible matter tied to his tail, being afraid of the flame reaching and confuming himself, was about to dip this inflamed tail in the fee to extinguish it; but the fea remonstrated with him on account of the probable confequences to the numerous: inhabitants of its waters; whereupon, Hanuman plunged it in this lake, which ever since has retained the name. - The zemindars aver, that every year, in the month Phálgun a single monkey comes from the plains, by way of Haridwar and afcends the highest peak of this mountain, where he remains one twelve month, and then returns only to give place to another; but he returns in very forry plight, being reduced nearly to a skeleton, with the loss of all his hair and great portion of his skin.

Leaving this station we descended a wooded and slowery path, crossing several small nullahs, and passing the site of an old village, where there were some sine old walnut-trees; around this, there was some cultivation, very backward of wheat, and a grain called Papera; and we saw several very large slocks of sheep, the wool of which, like that of all this part of the country, is extremely coarse. We soon after

croffed the Unta Gunga, by an o'd and rotten but better constructed bridge than usual; the river roars in a cataract of considerable heighth a great way below with much noise. The village Curfali is close to this bridge; a short ascent led us to it. It is the highest village in this glen, and is fituated on the bank of the Unia Gunga; 150 feet above its fiream; and near the extremity of the plain before spoken of, as forming the point between the Jumna and Unia Gunga; this plain is of confiderable extent, it may contain 200 acres, and is well cultivated; there were feveral villages upon it, but now, the remains of two, besides Curfali, only are visible. This last is large and tolerably neat, and probably populous; but at present it is full of the inhabitants of all the neighbouring villages, who have brought the images of their gods to bathe. The chief man of the village, with the pundits and brahmins of Jumnotri, attended by a great number of both sexes, came out to meet us. The pundit, a mean and dirty looking fellow, clad with the rest in coarse blankets, came forward, and insisted on marking my forehead with the facred yellow, a ceremony which I submitted to with a good grace as to a high compliment, and which was eagerly fought for by the hindu attendants, who, as well as the Seana and most of the villagers, received the bleffing after me, and we all proceeded to our quarters. .

The annual ceremony of carrying the images of their gods to wash in the facred stream of the Jumna, is, it appears, one of much solemnity among the inhabitants of the neighbourhood; and the concourse of people now assembled here has been busily engaged, in doing honour to it. They dance to the sound of strange music, and get drunk on a fort of vile spirit, brewed here from grain and particular poots, sometimes sharpened, as it is said, by pepper. The dance is most grotesque and savage; a multitude of men taking hands, sometimes in a circle and sometimes in line; beating time with their feet,

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bend, with one accord, first nearly to the earth with their faces, then backwards, then sideways, with much grimace and many contorning.

These, and their wild dresses of black and grey blankers, give a peculiar air of brutal serocity to the assemblage.

The men-dance all day, and in the evening they are joined by the women, who mix indifcriminately with them, and keep up the dancing and intoxication till late in the night.

Teer continue this frantic worthip for many days; and in truth, it bears much similitude to their general manners and habits-farage and inconfistent. At a place so facred, where there are so many brahmins, and which is the refort of pious pilgrims, it might be expected, that a Arich attention to the forms of religion, a scrupulous observation of the privations and aufterities enjoined by it, would be particularly remarkable; here, however, much is met with, shocking even to those hindus who are least bigoted. All classes and casts of people, brahmins not even excepted, eat every fort of meat, fave beef, and I believe fowls, and drink spirituous liquors even to excess. Fowls are in plenty in this and the neighbouring villages, and they were even offered to me as prefents by the zemindars, which could not have been the case. had they been held in abhorrence. I was also surprised at their indifference, as to what might have appeared, and certainly would in the low country, be deemed pollution to their temples. They themselves pointed out the outer-room of a temple or place of worship for the use of the kitchen; and faw with perfect composure a musfulman servant. kill in it the fowls they had themselves provided, and dress them for dinner. I know not if the place was in general use for worship, it was old and in bad repair; but even to a ruined temple, the hindu of the plains would probably pay more respect than suffer such a use to be made of it. The dress of the people before alluded, to is, in fact, the

same we have observed through the whole country, after leaving the lower parts of Sirmor; a jacket or dress of blanket, tying like the common hindu angerka, around the waist and open down the right breast, light in the body and on the arms, but with short skirts all round, very ample, and gathered in folds like the Scotch phelibeg; around their waist they wear a cemerbend, either of woollen stuff, or of rope formed of goat's hair neatly plaited. They wear drawers or trowfers very loofe to the calf of the leg, but tighter, and falling in numerous creases, to the heal; a piece of blanket stuff, somewhat lighter than the rest, is worn round the shoulders like the Scotch plaid. and is used to keep the body dry, or the head from the heat, as rain or fun may require; on their head they wear a black cap of hair or wool fitted to the scull, and ending in a small point. The wool from which they manufacture these cloaths, is of extreme coarseness; very far inferior to that met within Bischer, or any of the hill states to the westward, which sometimes was wove into blankets of considerable beauty and fineness; their colours are only two, a dark brown, and the common dirty grey; the former is affected chiefly by the men of superior rank and means; not a rag of cotton cloth was seen; and the dress of the women in no wife differed from that of the men, * except that fometimes their heads were covered with a handkerchief blue or checked, and they wore beads of glass or pewter in as great profusion as they could obtain them; and bangles of the same metal of great fize, round their arms and ancles.

THE personal appearance of these people is much the same as that of the Bischeris about Rampur and Serán. They have stout well built figures are frequently very fair, though much sun burnt; their eyes of en blue, and their hair and beards curled, and of a light or

They were femething like a petticeat instead of the trowsen, which the men dreffed in.

red colour. They feem admirably calculated to be formed into foldiers for a hilly region. Here and there traces may be detected of the Tartar features, the small eye, high cheekbones and meagre mustachies, but they are not sufficiently prevalent to give rise to the idea of any confiderable intercourse or intermixture. The language is still Hine, dustani, and though still very bad, it is rather more intelligible than that generally heard in Bischer.

On making enquiry respecting the distance from this place to Jumi notri, the nature of the road, and the possibility of passing the night there, we were informed, that it is fix cos, of very bad and roughroad in the river bed; but that there is another route confiderably longer with a severe ascent, which is sometimes used, when the river is too high to pass; but there is no place to pass the night in: We however believed the difficulties as usual exaggerated, and determined to carry the necessaries sufficient to enable us to remain a night, as I was exceedingly anxious to attempt reaching at all events fome clevated spot on the mountain, both to judge of its structure, and to make observations from.

THE morning was excellively cold: the heighths were clear, but clouds hung all around on the lower regions. Leaving every musfulman fepoy, the whole of the hindus fet out on this pious errand; and the Jumnotri pandit, with some other brahmins, led the way: we passed the backward and green corn land, and entered Jumna's bed: the stream here is not large, but very rapid; we cross it on a stick, and the path here becomes dangerous and difficult. in fact there is no track; but we proceeded in the bed of the fiream, croffing and re-croffing it as the lofty overhanging rocks on either side justed into it and alternately opposed our progress.

By one of these we were at last compelled to mount, and scrambled up through a thickly tangled wood of forest trees, dwarf bamboos and creepers, frequently beholden to the roots and branches for our fooring, till we reached the point of a sleep crag, on which is placed at fmall temple, facred to BHAIRAMJI'. The place is faid to be half way! from the village, and BHAIRAMJI is understood to be the avant courier of Jumna, and it is his duty to announce those who come to worship her. His temple merely confifts of a few loofe stones, and is not three feet high. There is no image; but it contains a number of pieces of iron, with one, two, or more sharp points, some twisted and some plain; a fmall brass canopy hung in the center; a small lamp and belt of the same metal, which is rung during worship. Here the officiating brahmin faid a long prayer with some fervency, ringing the bell and offering flowers, (which where also presented by the attendants) thus propitiating the deity towards the strangers. The place is curiously chosen-very wild and gloomy.

The descent to the river from hence is more dangerous than even the ascent, leading in some places along the face of the rock, where the want of natural sooting is remedied by laying sticks along upon the roots of trees, or pins driven into the sissues of the stone. When we reached the river bed again, the laboriousness and difficulty of proceeding was greater than below; the water was more confined and the descent quicker; the current more strong and the cascades more frequent and greater in heighth; while, in constantly crossing and re-crossing the water, its cold (having just less the ice) was so intense, as nearly to benumb the joints. We soon reached the spot, pointed out from below as Jumnotri, but it was not the sacred branch; here two streams joined the Jumna, and the rocks are more open than below. From hence, though completely at the foot of this higher region of the mountain, the peaks of snow are seen towering above us, as ready to over

whelm us; and in fact, the bed of the river is here stopt up by a prodigious mass of snow, which has carried down with it a mighty ruin of rock and soil. From under this mass of snow one stream; slows; and just above, the Ath-paisa Gunga, equal to the branch which retains the name of the Jumna, rushes down in a broken cataract from the ravines of snow. From hence turning to the left, and clambering over a rapidly ascending succession of rocks, in a short way, we reach Jumnotri.

The spot which obtains this name, is in fact a very short distance from the place where the various small streams which are formed on the mountain brow, by the melting of many masses of snow, unite and fall into a bason below; to this bason however, there was no access, for immediately above this spot the rocks again approach over the stream, though their heighth is less formidable than below, and bar surther progress in the torrents bed; a mass of snow, blocks up the further extremity of this pass, and the river issues from under it; between the two rocky banks, the breast of the mountain appears and closes the view, of vivid green, and surrowed by time into numberless ravines, down which are seen trickling the various sources of this branch of the Jumna.

At the place where it is customary to person ablution, the rock on the N. E. side of the river is very steep, and seems of the same nature as that which has been noticed at Afari Gerh, apparently quartzose, and chiefly white, but exhibiting a variety of shades and colours. The structure like that too is laminar, and from between the laminar run several streams of warm water. There are several other sources: and one particularly, whence springs a column of a very considerable size, situated in the bed of the river between two large stones, and over it, falls a stream of the river water.

This water is much hotter than that before taken of Afari Gerh, as well as in greater quantity; the hand cannot be borne in it for a moment, and it emits a very considerable quantity of vapour. I could not detect the least acidity to the taste, nor any sulphureous, or other fmell: it was perfectly pure, transparent and tasteless. A great quantity of a red crust, which seemed to consist of an oxid of iron, with some gritty earth, covered all the stones around and under the stream, and was to all appearance deposited by the This by exposure to the air, hardened into a persect, but very porous stone; whilst below the water it was frequently mixed with a flimy substance of a very peculiar character; very tenacious; of a dull light yellow colour, some what like Isinglass: it was certainly as well as the above described crust, produced from the water, for it covered the stones, over which the stream ran, and was very abundant. These warm springs are of great sanctity, and the spot for bathing is at the point before mentioned, where the cold and warm water mingle and form a pool about milk warm. The fprings have all particular names such as Gauri Cund, Terbet Cund, &c. and as usual some, superstitious tale is related of their origin. It is faid, that the spirits of the 12 Rishis, or holy men who followed Mahá Deo from Lanca, after the usurpation of the tyrant RAVAN, to the Himála range, inhabit this rock, and continually worship that Divinity; why this should produce warm water, is not quite so clear. Here however, all the people bathed while the brahmin faid prayers and received his dues.

Almost every fort of stone and rock, which we have seen in our course through the hills, is observed in the bed, and on the banks of the upper part of the Jumna. Of these, two predominated, that first met with in the course of the Paber, in large rounded masses, was particularly plentiful, consisting or composed of much mica, quartz, and

coarse sand or grit with abundance of a hard black substance, probably hornblende. The mass is of various, but generally great hardness, and I believe, it is a species of true * granite.

The other next abundant, was that white laminated rock, from which the hot-water trickles, and which has been called quartz; it is met with of yellow, red and greenish tinges, but always in lamina. Shistus or slate, of every fort, micaceous, and coloured of every tint, and of all degrees of hardness; grey, red, whiteish and blueish, is also abundant, and always plentifully veined with quartz. This stone, is by far the most common and plentifull all over these hills. There was no lime-stone, evident, unless some specimens of the white laminated rock resembling marble, be of a calcareous nature, which is not improbable; but I had not an acid of any fort as a test, and have to regret my incompetency to speak with any degree of positive certainty on mineralogical subjects.

During the course of our tour, it was peculiarly observable, that the rocky and more abrupt faces of the lostiest hills, in the whole extent from the plains to the snowy range, pointed in a north westerly direction, but varying very much, according to situation and circumstances; and that the opposite faces, though always rough and unequal, were more sloping and less precipitous: this disposition was more conspicuous anddistinct, the further we entered the hills and the nearer we approached the high rocky peaks of the snowy range.

It was also obvious that the structure of these rocks was stratified; fometimes consisting of different kinds of stone, at others apparently of the same fort exhibiting merely this tendency in the formation and fracture. These strata were always at an angle with the horizon; dif-

I think that some part of this tock was believed to be Sienite.

fering materially in its elevation, but generally about 45 degrees; and modefrequently pointing in a line from north east, to south west. This formation was peculiarly evident in the rocks forming the banks, of this part of the Jumna.

Ir would be pleasing to speak of the vegetable productions of this remote spot, but here I am equally unable as in geological enquiries, to fatisfy scientific curiosity. Those trees and shrubs which are met with through the whole range of this hilly tract, are also seen here, and there are several additions, which could they be botanically described, might be interesting. Of pines, those which resemble the filver and spruce fir, as well as one perfectly refembling the Weymouth pine with two forts of Larch, are found; the birch, and a species of the sycamore, oak of several forts, with a great profusion of trees and plants cover the rocks and hills, to the extent of the woody region; the strawberry, both the common fearlet, and the alpine forts, and fine and large of their kinds, with rafpberry and blackberry bushes, were very abundant; and for the first time I recognized the black current bush. herc round leafed rhubarb we also faw, but I could not The find, that the natives used it medecinally. The Gork'has used their roots as a poultice, to apply to bruiles and hurts. The pundit presented me with an herb of peculiar and very pleasant fmell which he pulled from off the bare rocks, at the highest part of one day's journey, it was called Máhí, and is considered sacred; it was very small. not growing above 2 to 3 inches in heighth, with a small bunch of leaves relembling fennel.

Our return down the bed of the river was rendered fully more difficult and dangerous, by an increase which had taken place in the fize of the stream, since we ascended. Sudden fluctuations of the fize of the river are very common without any immediately apparent causes; and they are to be looked for in the changes of the atmosphere, which take place very rapidly in these hills, and have a speedy effect on the snow, and consequently on the many sources of the river; partial falls of rain too occasion a quick, but momentary rite. Even when low, the dangers of the path are considerable, and I am considerat, that by this road, it would be impossible to reach the place, was the river at all higher than we found it. Though trisling in detail, the obstacles are numerous and serious in practice, and it is the first day's march we have made, where I thought the danger and difficulty considerable.

When we arrived at the village, enquiry was made respecting the route to Gungotri, and it appeared their were two ways. The one would carry us back 3 day's march on the road we came, and crossing the country between the Jumna and Ganges, where it is narrow, would take us to Barahát on the banks of the Bhigirat'hi; this would occupy 4 days, and Gungotri is called 8 more from them, but the road is very easy, and provisions and necessaries plenty.

The other road it is said goes over a high country, through snow, it was first called sour days, but now allowed to be only 3 day's journey from hence to the next inhabited spot; the whole way desert and dreary, but perfectly practicable. But both Govind Bhisht, the Seana of the village, and all the zemindars who knew the path earnestly distuaded me from making the attempt. They say, that during the chief part of two day's march, in crossing a high snowy hill; they meet a poison in the air, which so affects the travellers, particularly those who carry loads; that they become senseless, lay down, and are ineapable of motion. They cannot account for this phoenomenon; but believe

it to proceed from the powerful perfume of myriads of flowers which course the small valleys on the hill fides; but they themselves are not apparently satisfied with the explanation of the difficulty.

On reflecting on every circumstance which had passed, and weighing these now laid before me, I determined to attempt this dangerous route.

July 16th—We left Curfali at 6 o'clock, and crossing the Unta Gangá a few furlongs, above the bridge began our ascent which leads us through various jungle to Súnapali-ci-Dhar, whence a noble view would be obtained, but for the usual circumstance of mist overspreading the country around; birch-wood was very plentiful on this ascent, little differing from the common birch of Europe; the leaf is larger, though of the same shape, and it is not so fragrant as the beautiful ornament of the Scotch-woods.

From hence we continued our ascent up a steep hill face covered with short grass, small mountain slowers and stunted bushes, which gave it a strong similarity to many of the brown hills of Scotland. And here indeed I first discovered their own characteristic plant, the true heath, or heather; it is not exactly the same species as that, most common in the highlands; its small leaves cover the stem in four regular rows upwards, so as to give it a square appearance; its bell is delicate and white; and at some distance it is very similar, save that it has not that blooming purple glow, that gives the mountains their rich colours. I have seen it however growing among the other species, though not abundant. Here too that beautiful bird, the Peacock-pheasant was seen and heard in greater numbers, the higher we rose, and might have been taken for Grouse in their own Heather.

The bird is called indifcriminately Reinal or Monal by the natives, and is one of very uncommon beauty. The cock bird has a body of dark glossy blue; the neck and breast shining with purple and gold, the that of a peacock. On the head he carries a crest of several scatters, which forms a shining plame g.

The ascent from Súnapali, to Dig Dhar is steep and irregular, leading over many high peaks, and continues along the brink of avery deep precipice, the bottom of which was however not in view, from the thick fog that filled the vallies and enveloped the heighths; our path is good but tiresome, from dipping and ascending frequently. Bender-puch'h lies on our left hand.

when flying, his back uncovered by the wings, shows white; and he spreads a tail of reddish brown seathers. His note is a peculiar and very mellow whitele; he frequents the highest, coldest, and least acc slible peaks; and it appears that the higher we ascend, and the nearer we approach the snow, the more frequently they are met with, the more numerous they are. In to-day's march, we have found more than on any preceding one; but they cannot be considered as at all abundant. The hea bird is of a speckled brown colour, a little slarger than the Heath ben, (the semale of the black or wood grouse,) and has much of her appearance. Their sless, particularly that of the young ones, is very delicate, and has much of the game slavour.

No game, of any fort, is found in plenty in these remote hills; nor in saft, are any species of animal in a wild state seen in any abundance; but there are several forts of deer now and then met with, and of these perhaps the musk deer is the most remarkable. They are searce even than other kinds, because the valuable drug they affird, renders them an abject of more eager request.

The mulk, it is well known, is contained in a liquid flate in a bag, at or near the navel of the animal, and is taken from it just as it is found, with that part of the fkin attached in which the bag is formed. A small hollow stick is introduced, communicating air to the musk, till it dries, and the whole is tied round with a finew of the animal. In this state the whole (called a "musk nafa or musk pod") is fold; skin, sinew and all, for about twice its weight in filver, and is very highly prized in the country. It is faid, that the bag containing the musk, must be extracted from the animal, while yet alive; as, if he dies, or is killed, is diffipater, or is re-absorbed into his body, therefore he is never shot, but snared alive, and it is common, when It is known, that a mulk, deer is on a neighbouring hill, to turn out the country to haunt him down. From the great value of this, e-minudity, it is natural to suppose that it is frequently adulterated, and accordingly this is done by injecting a portion of the animals blood into the bag, while the musk is yet liquid. Thus in purchating this drug, much cantion is requilite. It has been faid, that the quantity p oduced of this drug is small; the much pods are commonly fent to the chief or taja, either as presents or at a certain rate, in lieu of so much tribute. A small part is bought by the low country merchants, who find their way to the hills. and who receive mulk, opium, iron, &c. &c. in return for the cloth, Sagar, &c. which they bring; but, on the whole, there can be no great annual supply; and if the hills to the fouth eastward produce the animal in no greater abundance than those that lie between the Alacananda and Setlej, the market can never be Supplied, far less glu ted, with genuine mak.

Another-fort of deer is called by the natives the garr?, and this is the only fort that has fallen under our own observation. It is dark brown and of the fize of a roebuck, and has horns resembling that animal?, from 6 inches to a foot in length, sharp at their points, and rough at the lower extremities: it is extremely active, and was only seen apon impracticable precipices.

Of other animals we only faw the horm, and were informed of their existence upon enquiry, to which we were led by feeing these horns in large numbers hung up in, and about their temples. This is a universal author, and every species of animal that carries such manpons contributes to thus ornamenting these holy place

REACHING a point called Gúrmú-cá-G'hát, we descend into Cúrmí-cí-Gád'h which has its rise by two sources in Mála-cí-Tiba, and joins the Bhím-cí-Gád'h about one mile below, to the right. A weary ascent and unpleasant path along the hill sace, carried us to a point just above Bhím-cí-Gád'h, into the bed of which we descended; along a hill sace, covered with sern, the lower part of which was scantily cloathed with shaggy birch; from the time we lest Súnapali-ci-Dhár, we were beyond the region where wood can grow, and it is only in the lower-parts of the valley, just on the nullah's banks, that we again discovered it re-appearing in this thin stunted birch; we have passed much snow in the clests and hollows, though the road has not actually led over it.

THE Bhim et-Gudh here, is larger than the Jumna at Curfall, but it thus every appearance of having been temporarily swelled by a fall of rain which has been heavy to day in the mountains; it is very muddy, and extremely rapid.

ALL the hills here seem abrupt to the south, and point their strata in directions between S. W. 20, and S. E. 20; inclined to the plane of

ces; even rams horns have their place. One fort we observed were very remarkable; when of a midling fize, they are at least 3 feet long, they grow near each other at their base, and sail backwards with a bold semicircular curve and diverging from each other gradually; on the upper curved side there—are articulations, from 2 to 3 inches distant from each other, the whole way from the base to the top.

The natives say, that these horns are the produce of an animal partiking of the appearance both of the deer and the gost, but more particularly resembling the latter; that it is large, as may be inserted from his horns, and that it is only found in the most remote, inaccossible, and coldest parts of the hills; that in the depth of winter, when the very vallies are covered with snow, which indeed remains on them for 5 or 6 months, this animal comes down almost to the very villages, with herds of other species; it revums as the snow melts, to its softnesses, and about this scason is foldom seen. The natives call it * Barrl; its skin is surposited curiously with a thick soft classick heir, and forms a comfortable bed to lie o.t. They are accossomed to place its horns not only in temples, but on the graves of such as were in their lives esteemed holy; and appear to attach to them some mysterious charm. We found one pair on our route, which had been placed at the spot where a manched perished in the snow; they were quite destroyed by the effect of weak other.

^{*} Baral, see Moorenort's tour, A. R. Val. 121b; these can be little doubt, but it is the Argali, ex ovir ammen, Secretary.

the horizon at an angle nearly similar to that before observed (45 degrees;) such are the hills forming the north side of the glen; those on the south side, presenting their northern sides to us, are more rounded and smoother than ordinary, covered with green and brown, as if there was much heather; much snow upon them towards their tops; and large scaurs of black and white rocks, streak their breasts, where the snow or the rain has bared them of soil; the very skirts, are fringed scantily with stunted wood, whence run green slopes covered with fern and a beautiful sort of thisse, through which burst a prosusion of slowers of every hue, and in a deep stoney bed, winding through this green valley, runs the Bhim-ci-Gád'h.

We continued along the stream for some time, and passed a spot, where for several surlongs the water runs under a large mass of snow that fills up the bed entirely. Beyond this, the valley opens out considerably, displaying a pretty wide extent of rich verdure, though snow is all around; indeed for nine months of the year, the bottom of the valley itself is covered with it. Thus no cultivation can be attempted; but the vegetation is rapid and luxuriant, affording pasture to large slocks of sheep which are driven here at this season.

We foon came to our encamping ground, which is near the top of the glen, a little way from the bridge of fnow. A cave, under a large stone called Bhím-cá-Udár, served as a covering; under this and a few similar rocks, our party to the number of 60 or more, contrived to accommodate themselves.

We have reached the top of the valley of Bhim-ci-Gadh, and are in the heart of the fnow; the hills which form the valley, arecontinuous with the range of fnowy peaks, that quite close to us in front, bound our view. A rocky ridge divides the large semicircle before us into two parts; in the back ground of that on the lest hand, the eastern peak of Bender-puch'h rises to a prodigious heighth; while from its bosom stretches down a large hollow of deep snow, cut into ravines, and precipices of a fearful heighth. The mountain itself exhibits one huge snowy mass, without speck or stain.

On the right, Sumeru Parbat, a peak hardly inferior to Bender-puch'h, forms the center of a snowy hollow, as rugged and deep as that to the lest; from each of these, streams arise, which unite, and form Bhim-ci-Gád'h at a very short distance from hence. As we were but a very short way from these hollows of snow, we obtained a bester idea than we had any opportunity to do before, of the vast thickness to which it has accumulated.

The hill people assured me, that it must be 500 cubits, while I was loosely supposing to one of them, that the face of one of the precipices of snow was 300 feet; this shews the opinion the natives entertain, but indeed only the wildest conjecture can be offered, for what mortal can ever reach them; they are desolate, cheerless, and unapproachable;

The journey of to-day, is the first which has been totally desert; not a house, nor a hut, nor any vestige of cultivation, nor trace of man, has any where appeared; it has been desolate throughout; but the hills have been particularly verdant, and the pasture very rich; not only a variety of grasses covered the ground, but a profusion of the loveliest flowers bursting through this green carpet gave the liveliest effect to every slope and bank; the beauty of the thisses and ferns, was particularly conspicuous, and cowslips, polyanthuses, orchises and

lillies of every colour and species were in great profusion. Among other shrubs, to-day we remarked the common juniper, easily recognised by its berries and smell.

July 17.—The morning was cold and foggy; by a little after day light, we were in motion, and continuing our course to the very top of the glen, croffed Cúnál-cí-Gád'h, just as it leaves the bosom of snow below Benderpuch'h, upon a bridge of ice; hence crossing the point formed by the junction of the two water courses, we passed many of the small streams that form this easternmost branch of the Bhim ci-Gad'h, and commenced a very difficult afcent along the principal one which falls here from a large mass of snow and continues to run under it; this was an exceedingly painful part of our road, as the afcent was very sleep and slippery. The ground was here bare and the grafs stunted, yet there were still plenty of flowers; a little further on, vegetation decreases fill more; hardly any thing being seen, where the ground is bare of fnow, fave a fcanty green flime and brown moss, like that found on barren damp grounds. A bafon or hollow was here formed in the mountain of fnow, and the ruins of the peaks around, heaped on each other. It was exceedingly cold, and a moderate warmth even, was only preserved by the toilsome exercise of climbing these heighths. Many of the cooleys, and several of the sepoys, both Gork'ha and Mewati now began to lag, and were hardly able to proceed, and every one complained of the poison'd wind. I now began to suspect that this supposed poison was nothing more than the effect, which the rarefied state of the air, from the great heighth we have reached, has on the lungs, and this supposition I was led to frame from my own sensations; I could hardly command strength enough to climb the steep rocky path, and experienced in breathing much difficulty and oppression, as if there were an infushciency of air. I do not think we could long have borne it, had

the afcent continued much further. In this bason we passed a small pool of water, held very sacred; it's name is Mátri-ci-Tál, and from it the chief stream of Bhim-ci-Gád'h issues: it is silled with ice and surrounded with snow.

From hence we passed over another hollow and steep ascent of snow, which lies deep on masses of bare rock, and reached the top of the ridge called Bansurá-cá-Ghát. The cold was very great, and it was painful to remain any time in inaction, yet every one was indisposed to move, and a tendency to sleep was very perceptible. The moment that any one who complained much of the oppression at breast lay down, he instantly dropt assep, and was with difficulty roused. Eating a few mouth-sulls gave a slight relief, but nothing materially alleviated it, nor was any one free from the general symptoms of debility.

If the line can be drawn with any degree of exactness, the bottom of this ascent appears the extreme heighth to which vegetation extends. At the top, there is not even the dull moss or lichen seen below; the stones are bare and unchanged, except by the air; and no sign of life appears, except a sew retnáls, and these slew together in coveys.

This being probably the highest point to which we were likely to ascend, I took particular notice of the rocks which composed the mountains: fragments of which chiefly formed the ridge we stood upon. They were principally the same as those remarked in the bed of the Jumna.

THAT hard stone, formed of white and black materials, and first met with in the Paber's bed was most abundant; micaceous schist much weined with quartz; and a sort of moderately hard blueish stone, much

pervaded with shiring particles, and common in all rivulets at home, with several less remarkable forts, lay in varying quantities all around. I think also I saw that common fort called whin stone, but in no great quantity. During the short opportunities afforded me by partial openings in the fog, I took particular note of the nearest and highest cliffs in view; and as far as the glass could determine or be trusted, they confift of the same kinds of rock as those found in the route we have gone over to-day, and just now described; the colour, the shape and fracture, is similar: white, red, reddish yellow, black and blue, at times in strata, at times in shapeless masses; but the primary formation of the bills is always stratified; the angle of elevation, and the direction of these strata, is ever the same.

THE ridge in which is Banfuru Ghat, is continuous with Banfuru-·ci.Dhár, which sweeps down to the southward in several peaks from Suméru Parbat, and is thus connected with Bender-puch'h; beyond the ghat to the southward, it rises into several high peaks, and is lost in Bacri ci-Dhar, Panda Raffu, &c. The western side is that which we ascended, the eastern looks into a similar bason to that we have passed, from the snow of which Bansuru-ci-Gad'h flows to the Bhagirat'hi; it is fingular that on the eastern side there is more foil, though not more vegetation than on the west, in spite of the action of the snow, which it might be prefumed annually wearing the mountain away, would leave little on its fide but bare rock.

FROM this ghát the road wound along the mountain brow; with miny deep indenting and irregularities, but with little general descent, if any, and was accordingly laborious, passing over much snow, and moist slippery rock, till we reached a pass called Ch'háyá-cá-Cánta.

Ch'háyá-cá-Cánta is the point at which the true descent commences, and i believe is little inferior in heighth to Banfuru cá-Ghát; it is faid that in clear weather, the plains of Hindustan may be seen from hence; but a thick fog, with heavy rain enveloped us at this time, and completely bassled the hopes I had of gaining any useful bearings.

A VERY steep rapid and difficult descent begins here and carried us to the source of Chinpo-gádh; which is here formed from a number of sources, from the melting snow. We followed the course of this stream, rapidly descending for a very long way, till it is joined by another and far larger one, called Ríndí-gádh, which has its rise in a prodigious snowy hill named Dúdian-ci-Bamec, to the north west: it is very rapid and impassible. The spot where these streams meet is called Lama Thalan, and is very lovely.

Pursuing our course along the united stream, now known by the name of Rindi Gadh, we crossed it upon a very large mass of ice, which silled up the bed for a long distance; and a mile surther, on reached a spot, thick in forest, which is marked by some very noble fir and sycamore trees, under the shade of which our guides proposed that we should pass the night; and thus, the sormidable journey which they earnestly dissuaded us from, and which was reckoned by Govind Bhisht at 40 cos, proves to consist of not more than 27 miles, or 18 cos; a distance we could easily have traversed in two days, but for the following reasons. That but sew situations are found where the requisites for shelter and fire, may be met with, so as to be sit for a halting place. Bhim-ci-Udar being almost the only one; and even there such is only procurable at

one ditto,

bence to the village She'bi,

a considerable distance; and, that the steepest and most painful ascent commences near Bhim.ci Udár; between which ascent, and the place we have now reached, there is no spot where rest, shelter and strewood for a night could be obtained. Thus travellers must remain the first night at Bhim ci-Udár, as the two day's journies are far too laborious to be performed in one; and the severity of the second, fully makes up for the ease and shortness of the first, both by the steepness and difficulty of the country, and the badness of the road, but above all by the artificial fatigue brought on by the oppression of breast which we all felt so much.

THE vegetable productions of to-day's march, though much of it was quite bare of vegetation, were very various; two flowers particularly attracted attention; one was called the Gugul and grew fome-· what like the common flat thiftle, with leaves radiating from a center. like the representation of a sun; in the center, was a slower level with the flat leaves, much refembling the blossom of a pine apple plant. This flower is held in high religious veneration. The other confifted of a stalk covered with large and long leaves, somewhat like those of a primrofe; ending in a cup resembling that of a tulip, but which was formed merely by a continuation of leaves of the same sort; which closed round the stamina and pistil, forming the petals of a very noble flower. These at their insertion were greenish, like the stalk and lower leaves; but their upper parts are black and yellow, and the center of the cup is of the same color, but far more vivid. The hill people called it * Birmah Cáunla, because, as the guide informed us. " it was as the raja among flowers." We could obtain no explanation of the terms, and therefore the application of the name is not intelligible.

The divine water lilly or Camala,

No living thing was feen on this march fave the money, which flocked together in packs, and appeared of a species somewhat different from those in a lower region.

July 18.—The morning was misty; the gorge of Chhaya Canta-was however distinguishable at a prodigious heighth above us. That pass, we are informed, was the scene of a great battle between the rebellious zemindars of the remote parts of Rewaen, and the troops of the raja; which, to the amount of 2000, were sent to collect the revenue, and punish the notorious and daily robberies which were there committed. The zemindars upon this foreign interference, joined and encountered the weary and starved troops, sand a killed the greatest part of them.

Leaving our pleasant grove, we descended quite into the mullah's bed, and by a rough intricate path through thick jungle, we reached the Suni Gadh, a rapid torrent of the same size as the Rindi Gadh, and crossed it by a wooden bridge, whence a steep ascent led us to Candi-cá-Ghát in Candi-ci-Dhár. This probably ends the detail of ridges which are thrown off by Bender-puch'h, and its dependent hills, and which we have crossed on our route during these two last marches. The ravines dividing these, all send their waters to the Bhágirath'i, and chiefly between the villages Súchi and Gussales; but many inferior ranges rat, which stretch to the southward as far as the plains, land swell that river with the streams they give birth to.

From this heighth we first obtained a momentary glimpse of the Bhogirathi, running far below in a narrow rocky bed, and the enormously losty and sharp peak of Sri Canta, dissinguished between clouds, gave a noble earnest of what the view would have been if weather had at all savoured us, but mist again enveloped us and distinguished between the same of

descent reached the village of Suc'hi,* which is situated near the foot of a hollow that runs down from Canda-ci-Dhár, and nearly a mile from the Bhágirat'hi; we have passed through some straggling cultivation, but the country has much the air of neglect and depopulation. Some fine old walnut trees, and many apricot and other fruit trees, shew that the village once was large and thriving.

The river from hence appears nearly as large as the Setlej, when we first saw it at Ranipur; but its banks are far wilder than any thing we have yet seen. The chasmin which it rolls is on a much larger scale, and the savage roughness of its mountainous precipices keeps pace with their increase in size. Bure rock is much more predominant, and wood, every where thinly scattered, still more sparingly sprinkles the rocky pinnacles, which form but one precipice from their peak to their hase; such is the appearance of the river bed viewed downwards from Suchi, in a line, but little to the west of south, till shut in by closing amountains.

Aleaving the village, we crossed the end of a ridge a line above it, and descended to the river side, at the lower part of an opening in its bed, of a singular nature; it meanders for more than two miles in a flat shringly space, which may vary in breadth from one to six surlongs broad. Just above this space, on the west or right bank of the fiveresthree villages are situated on a slope, somewhat less inclined than the surrounding hills, and on which there are many sields of wheat, &c. Precipices descend on the opposite side quite down to the river; at the lower end of this shingly space, there is a slight wooden bridge under which the river now again contracted, runs with great violence. Crossing this, one road lay along the bottom of the precipice, where

See that village in the outline of Lieutenant Webb's Surveys-Affatic Refearches, vol. xi-

there are many bad steps; two miles from the bridge, on the opposite side, the Shear Gad'h enters the river, which rises in a losty wild range to the north of Benderpuch'h, called D'hum D'hár, along which there is very dangerous path leading to the remoter parts of Remain. The hill itself seems to be an object of superstitious sear to the hill people.

The course now was nearly east, and the road became very difficult. Two large streams join the river a little way on; the Gúmti, and the Hersila Gangá. The first bears a large body of water along a most craggy and tremendous eleft in the right bank, and, we are told, takes its rise on the south-east side of a snowy hill called Nobel, forming parts of the boundary between Rewsen and Bischer, and probably runs in a direction from south-west to north-east, or from west to east, to the north of Benderpuch'h and its range; it is said to be eight day's journey hence to the north-west, the road through snow, and very arduous and dangerous. The Bischer men who come to Gangotri and the neighbouthood, either from religious motives, or to steal sheep, make use of this road when the season admits of it.

The Hersila Gangá, just above the other, is of less size, the chasm it runs in, as wild: it has its rise in the Qureiro range, and between it and the Gunti, there is only a narrow slip of sharp rock near their debouche; the gap in the river bank, that admits these two rivers, is very remarkable for its sharp craggyness.

Just beyond, on the eastern bank, are the rains of a village named Cachaura, where once a Rana lived who held sway over all Tacnaur; but some quarrel arose with the Bhotius, who live under the Chinese dominion at no great distance from hence, and these people came and destroyed the village, deposed the Rana, and demolished a temple, which was in considerable repute, to the God Rais. The pandit of

Gangetri, who was the relater, cannot say when this took place, but as it is traditional, and this species of information does not appear of long endurance among this people, it may probably not refer to a very distant period. The ruins of the math or temple, are full to be seen. The village Duali, our stage for the night, was but a short distance onwards, and we reached it easily by 5 o'clock.

This village, the highest in the bed of the Bhigirathi, is situated just above the confluence of the Keri Nullah with the river, and is stated to be 12 cos from Gangotri: it formerly was populous, and comparatively rich; the revenue it produced being 75 rupees annually, of which 22 were appropriated to the holy purpose of supporting the religious establishment of Gangotri. In the time of the Gorcha, power, 45 were thus bestowed; but, by the panait's account, who related these particulars, little or nothing now, arose from this source. Just opposite, on the other side of the river, is situated the village of M ikabba, once populous, and of its revenue (also about 75 rupces) half went to the establishment of Gangotri, and half to the catching and training of hawks for the raja's amulement. Now, the paudit and his family alone, confisting of about 15 persons, remain of its whole population. The village of Cachaura also, ull landy, produced a revenue to the crown of 75 rupees, but now it is qui e desclate; and this total defertion or partial deterioration, is universal in the country. A village called Suparga, which formerly exuled at some distance below: Was_' presented, it is said, by Roja Man Sinn when he came to bathe at the facred spot, to the Gangovi establishment. Now the zemindars have totally deferted it, and only the name remains. There can be but lit-r' : tle doubt, that this defalcation in cultivation, inhabitants and general prosperity, may be referred to the iron rule of the Gorc'ha conquerors.

When we reached the village, no male inhabitants were to be feen, five a few old brahmins and decrepid old men, who, with the women and children, remained in the houses. In answer to our enquiry, as to where the others were—we were readily and unhesitatingly answered, "that they had gone to buy corn, or to steal sheep;" and in a tone, that proved they thought this a piece of business, too ordinary and common to conceal.

From the descriptions attempted of the nature and appearance of the Jumna's banks, it may be conceived, that nothing wilder or more impracticable could well present itself to the traveller, than the scenes they afford; and I confess, that while viewing them, this was my own idea. Nevertheless, it is certain, that the character of the mountains which form that part of the Bhágírathi's banks, we have passed today, differs from that of any yet seen, and is marked by seatures still more rugged and inaccessible.

THE common dress is here the same as that in use at Curfali—blankers of black or grey wool.

Just at the entrance of the village, I was struck by the fight of a goosberry bush, a plant we had long looked for, without success; it was growing in a neglected state, but there was fruit upon it nearly ripe, bush small and sour, and there could be no doubt of the identity of the plant; this nearly completes the list of the common English garden fruits, found in the hills.*

^{*} Bune, when settled for the night, enquiries were made respecting the roads, which lead from this point to Badarmáth on the one head by Cédár—and to Burnssá, near the head of the Tonis, on the other; both across the secwy hills; as well as respecting what Passes there might be in this neighbours head through them to the Chinese dominions, the boundaries of which, I learnt, commenced at no great distance; and having understoo! that two Bhotias, inhabitants of a viriage within the Chinese territories, were in the neighbourhoad, I desired they might be brought for the purpose of questioning them.

July 19th.—A misty morning succeeded a night of drizzling rain, and we set off for Gangotri about 7 o'clock; the distance we were told:

There are in truth no roads from hence, save that by which we came, that lead through any practicable, or indeed to any inhabitable country in the first instance. But there are, as has been before remarked, paths which are used by travellers for shortness, or by thieves on their excursions to plunder neighbouring districts of their sheep and cattle, during a few of the summer months, when the snow has bestened and thus frequently a prodigious round is cut off from a journey, where the usual low-road is taken. For, in these hills, places that are in fact very close to each other, are moved to a ten or twelve day's journey, by the imperious nature of the country, and this is well exemplified in the relative positions of Gangotri, Cédárnáth, and Badarina'th, which all tie in one ridge of hills; and of which, the first and second are not, in truth, 12 to 15 horizontal miles distant, while the second and last are still more near. Yet taking even the shortest route, and going the longest merches, ten or twelve days are requisite to traval from Gangotri to Cédárnáth, because a very long round is takento avoid mountains totally impracticable. Of this road, I could gain no distinct information; no one here had ever attempted it, but it is described as worse than that from Jumnotri to Suchi, and exampled to fully eight days, during which no habitation or trace of man is seen, and mow is chiefly presuited and in the resulting to fully eight days, during which no habitation or trace of man is seen, and mow is chiefly presuited and in the resulting of the fully eight days, during which no habitation or trace of man is seen, and mow is chiefly presuited and in the resulting to fully eight days, during which no habitation or trace of man is seen, and mow is chiefly presuited and in the resulting to fully eight days, during which no habitation or trace of man is seen, and mow is chiefly presuited.

The lower road by Cachaur is even more tedious, and is in fact equivalent to going down to one siver, and up the other, for it passes within one day's march of S'rinagar.

From this information, insufficient as it was, we were obliged to abandon the idea entertained of visiteing Cidárnáth and Badarináth on this occsion, for our time was too limited to take the lower and
more easy road, and I feared the upper and desert one, on account of the people who were already,
much exhcusted by daily marching for a month running, and on whom even two night's exposure
had made a considerable impression. When this was evident, and when it was conferred that this
exposure would be prolonged to at least 2 days, during which the cold and fatigue would at least expost
that of the two gane by, without the means of procuring wood to warm them, and that it would be necessary to carry provisions for these 8 days along with us, while procuring porters was a very dublowmatter; it may not, under these considerations, appear unnecessary to have shaudoned the further prorecution of our intentions, and I with much rejuctance did so.

Similar in its nature to these desert roads, but parhaps more dangerous and dismal, is that which leads slong Shear Gal'h; and across Dhum Dhar to Bargisus one of the remotes' divisions of Remach; of this : reu'e, the following account was obtained : it is wholly desert, and at all seasons lies chiefly through snow; proceeding up the ravine of Shear Gad'h by a eterp and rough accent, a more level part is gained, which leads to the usual sesting place, a cave; the whole distance only about 6 cos, and the lattice of part entirely through anow. The 2d days journey is of nearly the same length, and like the first, in a direct northerly course, laving Benderpuch'h on the left hand to the south westward, while on every hand, during the day, nothing is seen but wastes of sanw and sharp rock in high bare peake; the op., pression at the chest and d finalty of breathing continues great all this day, and the resting place is a cave in the snew. The 3d carries the traveller across the Dhum D'har, at the point where the river Thuse arises from its west side; and following its course for a cos, he reaches a cove in its banks, name. ed Thagur Sale. The latter part of the descent is to the worth weets. From this place a day's journ. new carries bim in a south west direction along the Tonge to Usluh, the first village in Barrasau; one cas below Uslah, the village Gangar is simpled in a southerly direction, a little to the south eastof which, is Dhatmere. Another person made this journey in 3 days, reaching Thagur Salu the 2d day, and Uslant the 34; he calls the distance of the first day's journey 8 to 9 long cos, entirely to the. north, save the latter cos, which tends westerly.

is 12 cos. Several points were to be arranged before we began our march; the brahmins requested that no mussulman might be allowed

The direction of the extensive and lofty range of Dhum D'har is certainly very near north and south, and it is nearly as certain, from the accounts of every one who was interrogated, that the Tonse arises far north, on its western face, and thus has a course from considerably to the north of the Jumna.

As no wood is to be found on such routes, those who travel along the higher and more inclement regions of the hills, are under the necessity of carrying blankets to protect them from the rigour of the cold while they lay in holes in the snow, or under stones, and eat food raw, or previously dressed; and this is probably by no means an uncommon mode of travelling, for there is a road from Bischer, and particularly from the remoter provinces of that state, to Badarinath and Gedar, that lays entirely be, hind the ranges of hills in sight from here, and of which very little can possibly pass near the habitations of men: this is frequented both for purposes of devotion, and of traffic in salt and wool. The route adverted as in the narrative, leading along the hill of Nekel, and down the Ghante Gangar is probably a path diverging from this route to Badarinath, and indeed it is evident that the mountains are pervided in every direction by similar cuts, though to the eye of the traveller they appear impassible.

It is related, that about 35 years ago, a band of 4 or 500 men, from Bhardssee, and the remeter parts of Germhal, made an incursion through the hills into the Chinese territory, with a view to plander. I could obtain no particulars relating to their route, or to the time it occupied, but they effected their purpose, bringing back a good many sheep. If this be a fact, it corroborates the idea that there are many more passes through the Himalaya range, than have come to our knowledge, or than are generally supposed, through which it is practicable to convey at least small animals.

Further information was sought respecting these passes, and the Chiuese territories, by questioning the two Rhotiae who were brought to us at Duralis they were however persons from whom much could not be expected; they were poor inhabitants of a miserable village, and had never travelled much; what they did know, however, they communicated in a way that showed they did but was neuteness, and that they understood the object we had in view in interrogating them; and being treated kindly, were well pleased to give satisfaction. They spoke a broken sort of Hindustani, acquired in their intercourse with the hill people, but their own language was perfectly distinct in every respect.

They stated that they were inhabitants of the village of Chouncah, consisting of a few poor houses in the purgunnah or district of Chapming; the chief officer for subadar, as they called him is normally for the village they state to be about one month's journey from honce, at the rate of 9 to 12 cos per dry; but they evidently have no very definite notion of a cos. I suspect their journeys do not exceed 6 to 8 miles; sometimes far less, as they travel over a very difficult country, and go very slowly. They represent the road as exceedingly had; it lies for 10 days along the bed of the Jahnevi, tracing it to its source, which lies in a lofty hill called by them Sanctiau; and its course is very winding, but chiefly from the eastward. Another stream takes its rise from Sanctiau, which runs to Bitcher, and debouches into the Scalig, at a place they called Holbs. The name of this stream, they call Lingeen Kaid.

Chaprang is a large town, situated in a plain where there is nothing but short grass; no wood of any sort. It is one month's journey from their village, in a north-rly direction; one day's march, through snow and through hills, all very had and ragged road, the rast a level plain. In the course of this journey, they pass the Setlej river by a sange or woodet bridge; it is even then of considerable size, and it goes under the name of Lang-gin-Thang: but they know it to be the same strong, which, in Bircher, is called Satudra or Setlej.

to pass the village, which, indeed, was a measure I meant to have adopted unasked, and therefore at once agreed to. The pandit also represented:

From Chaprang to Gara is one month's journey also, the road laying in a northerly direction along a perfect grassy plain, with many shawl goats and shasp grazing on it; they are in abundance both at thaprang and Gara. Between these two places is situated the city, of Tuling, through which the road lies, and which they describe as large, and where a grand LAMA resides.

It has been universally found, that the hill people exaggerate distances when stating them in cos. and lead one to suppose that their day's marches are very long ones, when in fact they are exceeding. ly short; and this frequently happens, from the exceedingly difficult nature of the country and roads that lead across it. Thus, I believe that, if an average of 51 miles be allowed for the day's journey in these deficult roats, it will be found fully equal to the truth; this would make the coarse of the Jahnevi 55 miles, and the direction is probably from N. E. 6) to N. E. 80. But, as it turns much in a winding channel, and the road ascends and descends, full one-third may be tak a from that scene, and that is even too little. This would place the source about 37 miles to the N. E. 7) of Chair and ghati; and, following the sema reasoning, the village Chounsah may he double the distance further in the same direction, taking a few more miles from it, on account of greater ascents and chileriens than are to be met within a tiver's course-say one third; leaving 77 miles further, or 174 from Bairamghati. Chaprang is said to be another mouth's journey to the N: o of which through hills, equal to about 33-less one-third or 32. The rest being on level ground, more must be allowed ed; but, by their own account, they do not travel more, even on a plain, than 5 or 6 cas, wincer they call 8 miles. Chaprung will then be found 212 miles to the north of Chounsah, and, by the same reckoning, Gara will be 240 miles to the trouth of Chaprang, and shout 506 miles N. E. 11. 50; or thereabouts, from Bhairamghati. This is going on very uncertain data, but may, with o line remarks and routes, contribute a tride to fix some points in an hitherto hitle known country.

I was exceedingly auxious to obtain any information respecting the Set's and its sources, and paid very particular attention to all they end relating to that river; no one was parametred to speak to, or look at them, and I myreef paid strict regard, that no question should be put of a nature to suggest to them what sort of answer was desired, and as every word they said was apontaneous, I have some confidence in this additional evidence to that river coming from a confidence distance to the easier ward, and behind the Himatoya range. These men, however, could not distinctly say where the streams was derived from-

Many questions were put to them relative to their manners and costems on pecutiar occasings. Of marriage, they tell, that the bridegroom buys his wife at a great expense, according to his means; and much expenditure is made by his father in the ceremony, the father of the bride only fornishing the ornaments of the lady; it does not appear distinctly that much is given to the Lamas or priests, on occasions of marriage, as they do not officiate or attend them, even the sight of a woman being strictly prohibited them. Marriage contracts are entered into at all ages, from childhoud upwards, but the wives are not carried away till the age of 15 or 16.

Of their dead, they say, that is their village, they throw their dead into the river; but this is entirely from poverty, for any one who can afford it, at least partly burns the body, and then commits it to the stream. At Chaprang, when any man of rank (any "sirdar") dies, his body is taken by persons appointed for the purpose, and beat and pounded, bones and all together, and made up into balls, which are the given to be devoured by a very large species of kites, which are held very sacred, and are kept by the Lumas; they are fed regularly by persons (sopoya) appointed by the Lumas, and

that it was not customary to approach the facred shrine with arms of any fort, and that every one performed this last stage with naked feet. As by the general voice it was allowed, that marauding and plunder were common occurrences in this neighbourhood, I did not deem it proper or fafe to go totally unarmed; but agreed, that only five men should be permitted to accompany us thus accoutred, and that I should take my own gun; but that these weapons of war shouldbe thrown adde before we got within fight of the holy spot, and deposited in a cave near it, under a guard. I also pledged myself that no use should be made of these instruments, except in case of neceffity; nor any life facrificed either by the people or myself, from the time of our leaving the village till we returned to it; moreover, that I should not carry meat of any fort, dead or alive, along with. me, but lead purely on rice and bread. They did not even fugget. the pritting off my shoes at the village, nor could I have done fo; but the I promifed to throw them off when entering into the precincts of the temple, or approaching the holier places, with which they were much pleased. All the Hindys, including the Gorc'has, went from hence bare foote-

they are much revered and fearest by the people; who do not recture to approach them. Great expense is incurred at this ceremony, many thousand supers being given to the Lamas, with a sort of rich cap, of much value. The bodies of poorer people are sometimes burned, and sometimes thrown into the river. The Lama appears to be held in great respect: those who fail in this regard, and who do not administer the meat-offerings of grain and thee, are punished by the Mantra; by which, the offender is placed under the influence of some spell, and rendered immovesable in the position he happens to be in, and homes (as they term it) like stone or earth.

All disputes are settled by the Raja CATOK, (he is probably called raja from being the chief person, on another occasion he was called subadar.) A person who kills another with a sword, is fixed to four places, and branded with iron or brass instruments till he dies; a thief is branded in the forehead with an iron, his goods are seized by the State, and he is driven from the country.

These Rhotias were short stout men, with features strongly marked with the Tartarian characters; high cheek bones, flat nose and face, and small eyes, the corners of which furhed much upwards. They wore their hair very thick and bushy, and ending in a long plaited tail, after the manner of the Chinese. Their colour was considerably lighter than that generally remarked amongst the hill people, being a dity yellow: their frees were much tanned, however, and wrinkled. Their cleathes consisted of a gown or wrapper, of coarse brown woollen stuff, with something like drawers of the stuff, very loose above, but bound very light around the calf of the leg. The diese, figure, and general appearance, however, was exceedingly different from that of the Paparine or hill people.

For rather more than two cos, the road lay chiefly through a wood of large firs; a little above the bed of the river, the path was good, but here and there interrupted by a bad step. At this place we ascended the projection of a rock, which closes up the valley, by a rude, but curiously constructed set of steps, formed by pins stuck into the rock, and beams and stones laid across them. The channel of the river became deep, dark and narrow, and the path a mere devious fcramble, over enormous fragments of rock from above, mingled with broken pieces of trees, interlaced with tangled jungle, till we reached a small retired spot, beneath some fine trees, where a cool spring, and . the pleasantness of the place, induce pilgrims in general to halt. The river runs below this at a depth of about 100 yards, between two walls of folid rock, in which it has hollowed itself a bed just sufficient to contain it, and of which the breadth at the upper part is nearly the fame as below, and in this trough it tumbles over a succession of small falls for a confiderable way. Beyond this, the road is difficult, and frequently dangerous, passing along the face of Scaurs, in the beds of torrents, across rocks, and over a succession of broken ground, till we reach the top of a very ugly and dangerous descent, which is Yaid to be fix cos from the village, and which leads immediately down upon Bhairamgháti.

At this point the Bhágirei hí is divided into two branches—that which preserves the name, coming from the castward while the other, of a size fully equal, joins it under the name of the Jahnen, from the north-east. Both these rivers run in chasms, the depth, narrowness, and wildness of which, it would be far from easy to convey an idea of; between them, a losty crag, equal in heighth to those that tower on either side above the torrents, is thrust like a wedge. The extreme precipitousness of all of these, the roughness of their faces, with the wood which grows near their bases, obstructed the view, and prevented the whole being comprehended at a glance; but the distant black cliss,

pect in either of the three ravines, when the clouds for a moment permit them to appear. Just at the bottom of the descent, and immediately above the junction of the two torrents, an old and crazy wooden bridge is thrown across the Bhagtrashif, from one rock to the other many seet above its stream, and it is not till this point is reached, that the extraordinary nature of the place, and particularly of the rivers bed, is fully comprehended, and then is seen the stream in a state of dirty foam twisting violently, and with a mighty noise through the strangely hollowed trough of solid grante, cutting it imo shapes of every fort and leaping in fearfull waves over every obstacle.

The bed of the Jahnevi is at least equally picturesque and fully as savage, but we had not equal opportunities for seeing it; the perpendicularity and heighth of the rocky sides is perhaps greater than that of the others; this river is said to have its rise in a very losty mountain, called Rakesur Stan, situated in the dominions of China, and which is 15 day's journey from hence in a direction nearly that of its apparent course from hence, viz. north east by east, I am inclined to think it is still more easterly, and by no means so distant.

Just at the wooden bridge abovementioned, there is an overhanging rock, under which worship is performed to Bhairamji, and a black stone partly painted red, is the image of the God, and here not only were prayers said and worship performed, but every one was obliged to bathe and eat bread baked by the brahmins, as preparatory to the great and effectual ablutions at the holy Gangotri.

FROM this place we ascended the rock between the streams, by a path more curious and dangerous than any we have met with. The

rock is too sleep and perpendicular to afford any natural path, and the chief part is therefore artificially constructed in a manner before alluded to, by placing beams of wood and stones upon strong timbers driven into the fissures of the rock; thus forming a hanging slight of imperfect steps over the fearful gulf below; and as this sometimes has suffered from age or weather, and as sometimes the means of attaching it to the rock were scanty, or altogether awaiting the means of passing are as frequently so insufficient and hazardous, as to strike dread into those not much accustomed to such travelling—at times a leap is necessary to reach the next sure footing while the precipice and torrent gapes below; at others, all the support that presents itself to fave you from this fall, is a ledge of the rock not three inches broad, with a flight bamboo, hung from some root above to take hold of. By this unpleasant path, we reached a spot on the first ledge of the mountain where in a thick grove of fir trees, a small temple is placed to Bhairamji. It is a plain white building erected by AMER SINH T'HAPPA, who gave a fum of money to be laid out on repairs of the road and places of worship here and at Gungotri. Having paid our respects to this deity, we continued our road along the right bank of the river, by a path equilly bad as that of one afcent, and still gradually ascending among fragments of rock and wood, which made our progress painful and dangerous.

Three cos of this description of path brought us opposite the debouche of a considerable stream called Miani-ci-Ghad, which tumbles down a deep ravine, through the opening of which is seen the snowy range of Miani, with the extensive bosom of snow that seeds the stream. Just below this, we had a view of a very singular and losty peak called Rudru Himala Bahin, a prodigious spire of bare rock, the top of which was enveloped in snow. Just opposite to the stream of Miani, we obtained bearings, both upwards and downwards of the

rivers course, and for the first time the scite of Gungotri, with the spot where the river arises, was pointed out by the pundit; this last was nearly directly east. The nath now became very laborious and our progress very painfull. One cos from Gungotri, and two from Miani-ci-G'had, we reached a spot called Patangni, which is noted as that where the five brothers, commonly called the Pánduwán, Bhím SINH, ARJUN, YUDHISHT'HIR, SAHADEO, and NACULA, remained for twelve years worshipping Mahadso, after his retreat from Lanca. After that period they left this place and ascended Swergarohin, a peak of the facred hill whence the Ganges flows: there four of the brothers died, and their immortal parts afcended to heaven; but Yudhishithir, without tasting the buterness of death, or quitting his earthly tenement was assumed body and all, Within a gun shot of Gangotri, the Cédar Ganga a rapid and confiderable stream, said to have its rife in the Cédar mountain 12 cos distant, debouches into the Bhagirathi, and the place of confluence called Gauri Cunda is holy, and ferves as a further preparatory ablution 'ere Gangotri' be approached.

The spot which bears the name of Gangotri, is hid from view by the roughness of the ground, and the masses of fallen rock: so that it cannot be seen till close upon it. The hills which form the river's bed, and which the whole way from Bhairamghái'i are exceedingly precipitous and close, here recede a little; and without losing any thing of their savage grandeur, admit somewhat of a less consined view, and more of the light of day. Just above the debouche of the Cédár Ganga, the bed wid-ns into a small shringly space, in which the river rolls with great rapidity, changing its course as the sloods direct it. At the gorge of this space, a bridge is thrown across, formed of two parts, the interior ends of the beams resting on a large rock in the center; and just above this bridge, in a bay formed in this stringly space, is situated the small temple or Mat, dedicated to the goddess Ganga or

BHA'GI'RAT'HÍ. In former days, there was no temple made with hands for her worship; but within these sew years, as has been observed above, the piety of AMBR SINH T'HAPPA, chief of the Gorc'ha conquerors, provided a sum of money (from 4 to 500 rupees) for the erection of this small building.

THE temple now built, is fituated about 15 feet above the stream and precifely on the facred rock on which it is faid Bhagira'th used to kneel, worshipping Mahá Deo; it is a small building of a square shape from 16 to 20 feet high, much in the usual form of pagodas, rounding in towards the top; it is very plain, painted white with small dull red mouldings, and furmounted with the usual round and scolloped ornaments of fuch places; from the eastern face of the square which is turned nearly to the facred fource, there is a small projection covered with a stone pent house roof, and in the eastern end of this, is situated the entrance to the pagoda; and just before this entrance there is placed a small pagoda shaped temple to Bhairamii. The whole is placed in a small enclosure, surrounded by a wall built of unhewn stone and lime, within which also there is a comfortable but small house built for the accommodation of the brahmins who come to officiate, Without the enclosure are two or three sheds constructed of wood, called Dharm Salas (or charity houses) built for the accommodation of Pilgrims who refort here; and there are many caves all around, formed by overhanging stones, which yield a shelter to those who cannot find room in the sheds.

THE scene in which this holy place is situated, is worthy of the mysterious sanctity attributed to it, and the reverence with which it is regarded. There is not here the confined gloomyness of Bhairamghit'i; the bare and peaked cliss that rise to the sky, yield not in ruggedness

or heighth to any we have seen, their ruins lie in wild chrotic masses at their seet, more scanty wood relieves their nakedness; even the dark hive more rarely roots itself in the deep chasms which time has worn. Thus on all sides is the prospect closed, save in front to the east; where from behind a mass of bare rocky spires, sour huge losty snowy peaks arise. These are the peaks of Rudra Himála.

The first and most natural object of enquiry, after casting a glance over the general landscape, is to ascertain whence the river springs. Here, as at Jamnotri, we were told, that no mortal has, or can go further in its bed towards its fource, than this spot; and this difficulty is indeed fufficiently apparent. I made a trial to gain a point about twelve furlongs off, beyond the temple, for the purpose of observing the course of the river, and of seeing Gangotri in another point of view; but having, with confiderable difficulty, mide my way for some diftance over the unfleady fragments, at the risk of being precipitated into the fiream, I was forced to turn back; beyond that point, the precipices descend more abruptly to the water's edge: and, in all probability, it would be nearly impossible to make way along their faces. Crossing the stream, to take advantage of the easier places that may occur on either fide, is out of the question: it is too large and rapid;and climbing higher up the mountain fide is equally fo, for the crags increase in ruggedness and steepness till they end in snow. It may be, that enterprising persons remaining at this spot for several days or weeks, might explore or form a path towards the fource, for time and patient perseverance can do much, and has in sact, formed the path hithel; but I am convinced not only of the difficulty of the thing itfelf, but that it would not be eafy to overcome the reluctance of the hill people to afcend, whose affistance would be so necessary to strangers, and whom superstition and religious prejudice have hitherto kept below. 1 M

THE source is described as about 5 miles horizontal distance from the temple, in a direction nearly S. E. 85; and it is, in all probability, chiefly supplied by the melting of the great before of snow that terminates the valley, and lies between the peaks of the mountain spoken of above. This mountain, reckoned the loftiest and largest of the fnowy range in this quarter, and probably yielding to none in the whole Himála, obtains the name of Rudra Himála, and is supposed to . be the throne or residence of MAHA'DEO himself. It has sive principal peaks called *Rudra Himála, Brahmápuri, Vishnupuri, Udgári Canti, and Swergarchini. These form a fort of semicircular hollow, of very confiderable extent, which is filled with eternal fnow; from which, and from the various ravines of this hollow, the principal part of the stream slows. Probably there may be smaller hollows to the right above Gangetri, which supply a portion. Such is the amount of the pundits account, and I believe it to be confiltent with truth, for the following reasons. Our afcent from the village of Suc'hi, which is itself high among the hills, has been great, and from Luráli, rapid; so much so as to leave no doubt that this spot is far elevated above the level of the countries beyond the fnowy hills, indeed our perpendicular diffince from the fnowy region was very in confiderable, and were it not that the heat of the place is increased by the confinement of the funs rays, and their reflexion from to much rock, it is probable that snow would continue lying here continually. The cold consequently is great here at night. The river Setlej certain'y comes through the Himala range; but when we were upon its banks, and at a very confiderable distance within the range of from, it was a long days journey, or probably equal to 12 miles of regular gradual afcen from the river to the region of fnow, and the heat both night and day was intolerable; nay at Serán, 3 miles above its bed the cold was

[•] It also heats the name of Panch Parbat, from its five peaks, and Suméin Parbat, which must not be consounded with that springing from Binderpuch by and sometimes the general appellation of Cailás it given.

inconsiderable: It must then be allowed that the difference of altitude indicated by these circumstances is a strong presumptive proof that the Bhágirat'hí does not come through the snowy range, but rises in them.

Ir it does not come through the Himalayn, its course cannot be far from hence. The snowy peaks extend to no great breadth; they geanerally confull of one lofty ridge cut into high peaks and deep ravines, and project several equally irregular ridges on either side towards the north east and south west; these inferiour ridges are never equal in heighth to the parent mountain, but nevertheless at times shoot upon assist of great magnitude, whence in their turn diverge other mountains that either themselves or by their branches reach the plain.

The breadth of the mountainous region may probably occupy a fpace of from eighty to one hundred miles; the grounds for supposing this to be the extent of that space, are not only our own observation, but the information we have received from different and intelligent persons, relative o routes through the passes. Thus reasoning from probabilities, observation and information, Rudra Himila is at least removed to the center of the snowy range, and it is fair to conclude that the land, mountainous and elevated as it is, rather falls than risk to the north and north east of this mountain. This is consumed by the pundit, and those zemindars who have been accustomed to view the country from losty situations on either side of the glen of the Bhágil thi. Ho one seemed in the least to doubt the sact, that the river had its rise in the aforesaid holiow of snow; and some went so sar as to assert that, when climbing in search of stray sheep, they had seen the glen of the river ending thus, and could discern the deep ra-

In the Nei Mara p. is, after paffing Badarinath which is about the center of elevation, that is to fig. the highest elevated those on that road, the plains are reached in three days.

vine through which it trickles down into its bed from the snowy bason: and further declare that no very considerable stream appeared to join it from any other quarter. The road before adverted to, by which the Bischer men go to Cédár for salt, proceeding behind this mountain was quoted by the pundit as a proof, that the river did not come from a greater distance, and he mentioned several corroborating accounte given by Bhotias, who had travelled much in this quarter.

To all this may be added, that the stream of the Bhágirat'hi, though large and rapid, is perhaps not greater than may be accounted for by the large mass of snow that supplies it, asted on by rain and snu, at a time of year when both have greatest effect; and that sew streams of any consequence join it above the Jahnevi; the Shewri-Gad'h, the Miáni Gád'h, the Bougi Gád'h and the Cédar Gangá, being the only ones from the south east, while from the north west side, not a single stream larger than a mere rill, falls into it; all of which renders it probable, that sew if any nullahs unite with the river above Gangottri, and that it really is formed as above described.

It has been faid, that the appearance of the bed of the river and hills closing up our view confirmed the information we received. About two furlongs beyond Cangotri, a point on the left from the northward shuts out the immediate view of the stream; beyond this, probably about one mile, (or less of horizontal distance) a point from the southward stretches down behind the former, hiding a larger and higher portion of the bed and sides; beyond this the course is the all appearance straight for a considerable way to the southward of east, and a very rough craggy ridge shooting into sharp points forms the eastern bank, and ends in a point, round which the river again appears to turn, and which stretches down from Swergarohini.

Swergaronini is the nearest of the five peaks, and forms the western point of the great snowy hollow. Rudra Himála forms the eastern point: but from it a great shoulder runs down to the south westward, that as far as we could judge gives off, or ends in the mountains we are surrounded with, and forms a great unbroken though unequal snowy ridge, that bounds and confines the glen of the Bhágierathi.

The other peaks mentioned above form different points in the back of this immense hollow, and all together compose one of the most romantic as well as largest mountains, perhaps in the world. The above discussion and explanation may seem tedious and excessive; but when the object is to throw every possible light on even the remotest, and least important part, of the course of this venerable river, tediousness may perhaps be pardoned.

The old popular ides, that the Ganges issues from a rock like a cow's mouth, (Gae Muk'h) did not fail to occur to me, and enquiries were made into the origin of this fable. When it was mentioned, the pundit laughed and observed, that most of those pilgrims who came from the plains put the same question in several shapes; one asking whether it did not take its rise from the leaves of a sacred birch, (Bhojpatr;) others from its roots: and others again supposing, that the street was and visibly came down from heaven. But he gravely asking that no such thing happened, and that the river, in truth, come from the snow as above mentioned. He then gave the account above detailed, adding, that it was the true one given in the Sastras, and that he was convinced of its correctness not only for that reason, but (shewing the landscape before us, and pointing to the five peaks, as in evidence of what he advanced,) because, as might be seen, it could not well be otherwise.

So far as the people of the place—pundit, brahmins, and zemindars were questioned, merely about their own district and the places contiguous, their answers were distinct and prompt, with every appearance of being correct to the best of their apprehension. But when any attempt was made to carry them further abroad, or to collect any thing of the topography of the country beyond this great range, they failed altogether: either at once faying they knew nothing about the matter, or giving improbable inconfishent accounts. Some of them asserted, that there was a plain and well cultivated country at no greater diftance than 12 cos (horizontal distance) from the other side of Rudra Himála; but, from the nature of the country it was not possible to reach it, except by a very circuitous route. But whether they alluded to the great plains of *Tartary, or to some intervening valley, it was impossible to discover. They however afferted, that it might be seen from some of the high peaks in the neighbourhood, which I must bekeve to be false, or at best very doubtful; as I think there cannot be any means of afcending a point high enough to afford such a view from any place near this spot.

From the time we entered the bed of the river above Suchi one species of stone has chiefly predominated. A hard white stone pervaded more or less with black spots, streaks and stars, and frequently with mica; the structure is remarkable, and though the colour, the composition, and proportion of the ingredients vary, still it is quite the same stone: I am much inclined to believe it is a fort of granite. This is much like that stone first met with in the Paber's bed, though in principal

It fach a plain do exist, it cannot wall, I think, be near the great plains on the N. E. and E. of the Himáloya, as the routes we have obtained from more circlitable authorities, imply the existence of a far greater extent of hills stretching even to the Southward of Kamzin. The plain was reported, I think, to be discelly behind the Célár mountain, which is continuous with, indeed, a part of Rudra Himála, and did not belong to Germbál.

[†] This conjecture has been fiace fully juftified, at scientific men have pronounced the specimens to be true grante.

whiter: some pieces are purely so; others spotted, with jet like particles; others with long black bars, irregularly crossing each other; some with mica in a grey bed; some with dark black or blue veins, some slightly red, some yellowish, and other specimens grey. In the river bed, from Suc'hi to Duráli it was found in large rounded irregular masses, but from that village to Gangotri, the whole mass of the mountains seems to be composed of it, and the bed of the river from a mile or two below Bhairanghát'i is formed in a solid mass through which an irregular trough has been hollowed by the continual action of the water, just broad enough for the stream to rush in a succession of falls and rapids. Its waters are quite loaded with a quantity of white shining sand, which doubtless is produced by the attrition of the stones rolled along this channel, and their gradual and constant action on the sides and bottom of this rock.

THE night we arrived, fatigue was sufficient to prevent much further exertion, and combined with cold to suspend the intentions even of the pious, and a night's rest under the roof of one of the Dharam Salas, was very acceptable.

The whole of the next day (the 20th July,) was occupied by the people in bathing in the holy stream, and the worthy pundit made a considerable harvest from the zeal of the party; indeed, it was a matter of serious consequence and great joy to every one that had thus happing reached a place of such super-eminent sanctity, where, in sact, the act of ablution is supposed to cleanse from every sin heretofore committed; while the supposed difficulty of reaching it is so great, that sew but professional devotees ever attempt the pilgrimage. It is, we find, customary for those who have lost their father or mother, to submit to the operation of shaving, and the changes this produced

On the party, were whimfical: even the mustachios were not spared; one chief means of grace, was frequently walking round the holy temple, and in this easy mode of obtaining it, it was observed that the most noted rogues were most forward—some were wonderfully indefatigated.

THE outfide of the temple has been before described—within, thereare three images, one of them, I think, was of Cau'; and the stone shelf on which they were placed, was wet and foiled with the offerings prefented: a peculiar and very strong smell was perceptible, but I know not what it was; the place is, as usual in Hindú temples, lighted by a. lamp which yielded but a fickly gleam—no daylight had admit ance no fign of riches was perceptible, either in the temple or on the person of its priest-no tinsel even gittered on the images, which were formed of black stone, and were painted. The pundit was a smart little man, cloathed like the rest of the hill people in coarse woollen cloth: he wore a red velvet cap upon his head, which had been presented to him by some pilgrim from the low country. The truth is, that though the shrine of Gangotri is the holiest of those to be met. with in this facted range, it is the least accessible, and consequently has fewer votaries; for those coming from the low country choose rather. to take a comparatively easy road, and proceed to a more splendid and better frequented shrine, that of Badarinat'h which is thus far better endowed, and the officiating priests of which are in much better worldly circumstances, than those of Gangotri. The pundit complained much of this defalcation, which he faid was partly own, gi to the flate of the country from the Gorcha conquest: as, fince that paried the roads being neglected, and no provision being made for the necesfary repairs, it was a matter of some difficulty to reach the shrine in fafety; and this being once known, had an immediate effect in deterring even those who might else have attempted the journey.

WB had now staid the full time we could afford, and had not, in fact, provisions for another day; preparations were therefore made for our return, and on the morning of July 21st, we set off for Duráli.

The morning was clear and lovely, and the snowy peaks of Suméru Parbat shone forth in sull glory, illuminated by the rising sun. Our route was the same as that we came by. Gooseberry bushes were as bundant the whole way, but the fruit was small and sour. Several trees of cedar were pointed out* to us by the brahmins, but they were not abundant; it appeared the common red cedar, and is called by the natives D'hap: they regard it as very sacred. Our Hindú attendants each carned away a little piece of it given by the brahmins.

July 22d.—About 12 o'clock we lest Duráli, and reached the vil-

wing rain which indeed had fallen the whole night: we left the village at 7 o'clock, and descended to the river by a steep stony path through indges of cultivation, and crossed it by a bridge suspended upon two rocks; it is here very rapid, and enters between banks more confined, than opposite and above the village. From hence the road leads along the sace of the eastern, or lest bank, rough, stony and difficult, climbing up rocks when the passenger's only hold is by roots of trees, and exceedingly uncomfortable from wet. Somewhat below the bridge, we patient the debouche of Rindi Gádh, which stream we crossed, descending from Chháyá Cánta.

[•] In appears upon enquiry, that from the time we entered Germbal, on croffing the Maral nullah near Lakhamandel, on the first day's journey, that we have travelled entirely in Requien till we croffed the pass at Ch'háyá Cánta, when we entered upper Lacnour, which occasionally was attached to Requain, and sometimes formed a different Amile

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After a mile and half further of fimilar road we reached and croffed Load Gad'h by a wooden bridge, a stream which has a course from Jaundi a snowy hill, through 5 cos of desart country, and is large and rapid.

THE rocks here resume their structure appearance pointing as before to the southward, and their structure has changed. A little surther on we crossed the river again on Loarnad-ca Sango. It here winds much, running very rapidly between the banks which approach each other close and are very precipitous and rough; the road which at sirst carried us clambering up and down the precipices with much toil, now winds along the soot of one of its banks.

Just below the bridge, there is a very rapid descent in the river's bed, for near a mile, in which space though there is no absolute cascade of any magnitude, yet the declivity is so steep, that the river tumbles over it the whole way, with a noise like load continued thunder, in a mass of dirty soam: at the end of this rapid, we again crossed the river, to the lest bank, by Datráni-ca-Sango, which is very long, narrow, and insecure.

The road from Loárnad ca-Sango, is very painful and difficult, leading entirely over the high piled ruins of the rocks above, and much tangled with thorns, while it rifes and falls continually till we reach Dangalo-ca-Sango, on which we crossed the Bhágirathí for a fourth time to-day. Just above this bridge, we saw the debouche of Canduli Khola above, called Gedar Gádh, which is, in fact the same into which, the streams from Bansuru Ghát and Sath-hiar-Cothí slow. A little below the bridge, and in a small nullah, not sar above the river's bed, the vellage Bangheli is situated, and on the left bank a little surther on, a small village, Uri, is seen, and from thence begins the Thát or district

of Cathúr. Two miles further carried us to a nullah called Cúrmi-cia-Gádh, the bed of which we ascended, to get round a high rock that projects into the river's bed; the ascent was exceedingly toilsome and dangerous, its length a mile and a half: another descent to Elgú Gadh, which we crossed with difficulty, and an ascent from its bed, brought us to the village Teár, our resting-place for the night.

Our perambulator, which had accompanied us through the hills, became so shattered and crazy at *Duráli*, that we could make no further use of it; a considerable annoyance, as we must calculate the distance by time, and from point to point: from *Suc'hi* to *Teár* it cannot be less than 16 miles.

It was mentioned, that the men of Duráli village were all absent when we arrived there; it was ascertained indeed, that the object of their journey was plunder, and to-day we understood, that they had actually succeeded in driving away 4 or 500 sheep and goats from the district of Cathúr. Just asier crossing Dangalo Sango, we overtook a large party of men, amounting probably to 100, armed with **xes, bows and arrows, who, it appeared, had come from a village called Reithal, thus accountered, to way-lay, and rob, the thieves of their booty. Their information however was too late, and the plunder was safe-ly carried of. When questioned, they answered without the least hesitation, nor affected to conceal their intentions; when told that such missingly swould draw on them the vengeance of government, and that probably twenty or thirty of them would be hung; they shewed neighber the affectation of shame or contrition for the offence, nor fear of its

^{*} Every Pakaria carries an axe, called by them Dangen, which is small, and wors stuck in the cemerbend in a manner finiter to that in which the Gorc'has wear their Cucris. The Dangen is like the Cucris, the wear on of the foldier, the husbandman, or tradesman—useful in all cases. Few of them, had talwars; they are not ongo ally a hill weapon, and are all imposted from the plains.

punishment, nor in any way evinced a finse of the justice or injustice of the consequence pointed out to them, but coolly answered, "it is well, as the fircur shall please."

July 24.—The morning was chill and cloudy, but many of the fnowy fummits appeared on the opposite side of the river, with deep ravines streaked with snow, descending from their bosons, carrying their streams to the river. A few small villages are seen near the river, on their shirts—Tear itself is small and poor; the houses are chiefly covered with grass; slate is probably scarce of a good quality, and wood is only used to cover the temples.

We left the village at half patt 7; just bryond it the prospect down the river opens, several villages with a good dear of cultivation appearing. A various and irregular road, passing Stagar-cr Godk and through the wretched village of Cosin led us to Palu, a village muste on a projecting point high above the river, upon which, and in the valley, there is much cultivation. Two miles and a half of a similar road, including another ascent and descent in crossing Gain Gaal, carried us to Reithal* which is a large village and looks more thriving

[&]quot; From the village at Ken'bal, the lower road flathes off from Gangoria to Cédarnat'b and Bal'arimith. The first day's jourcey takes the triveles to a cave called Shealf-ci-Cdan, to on, the road is tolerably good in a footherly direct in-one sleep ascent.

Second day's journey to Carbur, 12 cas, course southerly - half ascent, half descent.

Third day a journey to Billang, tell 14 cos, o rection to the east-confiderable afternt and defcent, par good.

For the day's journey to Found Danda, a defact hill: refling-place, a case: 10 cor-much alege, but good path.

Fifth day's Journey Terguji Narain, 9 cos - 3 ces level, 6 cos of descent to the castward.

Sixth day's journey to Gaurs Cunda, year -steent and deficut to the cashward. There is at this place a hot spring, which is led through a brass mouth fixed in the rock, where pilgrims bathe.

Seventh day's journey to Cedar, 10 cos-great afcent, but good road. The temple to MAHA'DEO is faid to be of confiderable fize; fituated very near the flow, upon a spot of level ground on the mountain, which is, in saft, a part of that called Rudra Himlia—a facred steam called Cali Ganga, has its rise here, and joins the Alacananda at Rudraprayag. There are, at it is place, eleven Daram Salar for the use of pilgrims. From Cedarnar's to Badarinar's, although the distance horizontally be little, it requires eight days to go; force ed marches will do it in fix, three days of which are nearly entirely a return backward; then an ascent nearly, it is said, in the same direction. The perfect impracticability of the country occasions this necessary detour.

than usual; it was from hence that the chief part of the robber band we yesterday met, issued. Several smaller and larger streams now flow on either side to the Bhazirat'hi, the names of which it is of little importance to mention; one large one, the Jal-Gad'h debouches opposite to Reithal. Pursuing our way, we past Notarna and Doar, poor small villages, and traversed several sields of ridged cultivation, furtheron we passed through Gusali, a tolerably neat and large village, containing from 15 to 20 houses, chiefly thatched with grass. A temple covered with wood was also observed, but the Chinese appearance of the houses, the lofty towers and enormous projecting wood or itone roofs, are wearing fast away and the houses assume more of the look of common Hindustance huts. The wretched village of Jacolla, is somewhat more than 2 miles by the road, but not above one, of horizontal difance from Gufali, and we reached it croffing two nullahs by a flony rough and difagreeable path.

HERE we rested for the night, and in very miserable accommodations; these have been sound worse as we got nearer the low country, the houses are dirty, closer, and more full of vermin.

Since leaving Teár, our route has led through the district of lower Tacnaur. The mountains in this day's march have lost still more of their rough savage appearance; they slope occasionally more towards their bases, and are frequently wooded far up: cultivation is more common, villages more frequent, and the predominating colours of green and yellow, give a far more cheerful cast to a country, that however can only seem less wild by contrast with that we have lest.

July 25.—The night was rainy, and the morning as usual, cold, wet; and comfortless; and we found that, through some mistake of our

guides, or our attendant Kishn Sinh, we have taken a wrong road, which is confiderably more toilfom: than that which leads across the river from Teár. In the one we were about to enter on, we were informed that, confiderable obstacles would present themselves from the rise of one or two large nullahs, the temporary bridges of which had been carried away by the floods. Directions were given to erect others for our passage, but the indolence and natural slowness of these prople, in the common business of life, is so great, that we could place little reliance on their exertions, and we set off without any certainty of reaching Bárahat that night.

The manufactures of Bifeher are remarkably superior to those of Rewaen and Tuenaur both in material and workmanship; the blankets and woollen stuffs of the former, are frequently of great sineness, close in texture and of considerable beauty, while those of the latter are coarse, unsightly and bad; the wool of the former, is of a frences equal to some of our best En lith wool, while the produce of the latter countries appeals to postake of the character of hair, and the thread spun from it is bristly stableorn, and rather coloulated to produce a coarse hair cloth, than any comfortable warm woollen sobilek; the reason of this difference, is even less explicable than the of others, and it is to be feared has its origin only in natural indoletics and sloth. For pasture at a levents is equally good in Remain as in Bischer, and one breed of sheep would in all probability thrive there as well as another, seeing that they succeed perfectly well in a similar climate.

The superior state of agriculture was notorious in every district of Bischer through which we passed, and cannot entirely, though it may in some measure, be referred to the more untoward and impracticable mature of the countries now under discussion. The houses in the formur are also more calculated for comfort in general than those of the

latter, though this difference is more perceptible, internally than externally.

The circumstances in which these countries or districts are placed, though they appear to be pretty similar, differ perhaps in some points; and it is but fair to state them, as it is possible the difference of character, above remarked, may in some degree at least be referred to them.

The Gorc'has have ruled in Gerwhâl for near twelve years, previous to which a levere contest had been maintained, which drained the country of men and money. They appear to have borne in mind, in their subsequent conduct to this unfortunate State, the trouble it cost them to win it, and acted as if determined to revenge it. Its old families were deflroyed; all those persons of rank and importance who were taken, were murdered or banished; its villages burnt or defiroyed; and great numbers of its inhabitants were fold as flives. The remaining part were oppressed by heavy taxes: and many voluntary banishments and emigrations took place, to avoid a tyranny too oppressive to be borne, and too powerful to be withstood. Thus, throughout great part of Cerw's i, the traveller fees but the ruins of villages, and the traces of former cultivation now abandoned: while, the inhabitants that remain. are, in all probability, the most ignorant and the lowest; and it may fairly be prefumed, have funk lower in exertion and mind, from the oppression they have grouned under.

The Gorchas have only succeeded in subjecting the state or province of Bischer, within these 3 or 4 years past, and its subjection was far less complete than that of Gerwhál. The conquerors have had less time, less opportunity, and probably saw that they dared less to destroy the country and villages, or murder and disperse the inhabitants; the remoter districts they scarce penetrated into, and the certainty we trace

through the whole of Bischer the marks of the Gorc'ha violence, and the proofs of their temporary power in forts and strongholds still; the former are far less obvious than in Gerwhäl. It may be inferred from this, that the ancient spirit of liberty and renstance is less beat down, and the mental energies less depressed in this scene of recent, and somewhat milder conquest, than in that of long established tyranny.

It appears too, that Bischer, even in the remotest parts, has kept up a greater and more general commercial intercourse than its neighbouring provinces: the course of the Setlej, passing through even its wildest districts, and communicating with the plains of Bútan on the one hand, and those of the Panjab on the other; give facilities for, and encouragements to trade, not possessed by the north western parts of Gerwhal. Many more persons reach the plains of Hindustan from Bischer, and many merchants frequent it in return. Whilst, except a pilgrim to Jamnstri or Gangotri, none ever come or go to the countries in which these are situated.

AT 9 o'clock we lest Jacolla, detained till then by heavy rain, and marching a very short way along the hill face, we descended for upwards of a mile to the river's bed, by a very steep rough and shippery path, which there winds along its bank, following the inflexions of the stream, till we crossed Selcour Gad'h, opposite which there are three village one above the other on the other side, below them a small nullah solls into the river. Hence our road ran for a considerable distance, partly along rice cultivation, and partly along some slat table land which we now met with, a little elevated above the river bed in the hollow of each reach; passed Jum-cá-Gérh an old house or fort, projecting into the river on the opposite side, formerly a place of considerable sanctity, and where one of the many ablutions prescribed to the religious on the way to Gangotri was personmed; just below,

Jum ci-Gád'h empties itself into the river; somewhat further on, upon the road (still on the right side of the river) we passed the small and poor village of $In\hat{u}$ where we saw some of the largest peaches, I remember seeing either here or at home; we reckoned this place at least $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Jacolia.

THE path fill leads along the river bank, occasionally on rice grounds and at times through thick, tangled, but small jungle to Goari gad'h, about 2 miles further on, a deep and rapid stream which we forded with difficulty and pursued our course to Rini Gad'h, a large and deep torrent much swelled by the rains. Over this C'holla, which is fully 9 miles from Jacolla, the zemindars had gone to place a temporary bridge. We were detained a full hour, till it was ready, and a most frail fabrick it was when finished, consisting of two small rounce flicks extending from the left bank to a large rock in the middle, from which, to the other bank, three fimilar ones tied together gave a most limber and unfleady mode of transit; such was the machine on which 50 or 60 persons, many with heavy loads were to cross a wild mountain fiream: by care however, although it bent till the wood touched the fiream, we succeeded tolerably well: the steadiness of these hill people in preferving their footing though heavy laden, in difficult fituations, is really furprizing; only one accident happened, but it was a fatal one. One unfortunate cooly missed his step from the reaction of the timber, and fell into the stream; ere a hand could reach him, he was swallowed up and carried away in a moment to the junction of the nullah, with the river, about 150 yards below, where his head for a moment appeared feparated from his load, but the foam ng current of the Bhágirat'hí here tumbling over large rocks, with great noife, feized him and hurried him along with its tremendous torsent

FROM the bed of Rini Gadh, by a winding irregular road, we reachted the top of the valley or reach, where Barahat is fituated. At the

upper extremity on this (west) side, we pass d the temple of Likhajuru, facred to Siva, and another to Durg i. Somewhat surther on, on the opposite bank, is situate the village Mandhal, and a very short way below it Islot. Barahat is no great distance below this last, and is situated on the right or N. W. bank of the river, on a small stripe of level land, which commences at the top of the reach, and lays at the soot of a high hill. It is a wretched place, consisting of sive or six poor houses surrounded with filth, and nearly buried in a jungle of nettles, thorns, and every rank weed, the produce of a dunghill; the people looked as poor and wretched as the place.

TRADITION, for it may be faid to amount to that, says, that Barahat was a plice of note and wealth, containing 50 or 60 shops in its bazar, (a large number for a hill town,) and situated in the midst of a rich well cultivated country, abounding in corn and cattle of all forts: it was also a place of much fanctity, and this is the only relique of its former self to be discerned. Even its tem les, however, are in a *miferable state of dilapidation, though they still abound with brahmins and fuquers. Dathatri is facred to Siva-Murli Manur is either the name of a temple or the deity it is facred to; PARSERAM has his shrine; and Suchi-ca-Mandir (the temple of Suchi,) contains the famous Triful or trident. There are also many holy pools for ablution, as Surj Cund, Brahmá Cund, Visihernath; all formerly frequented by pilgrims on their way to Gangotri, whose worship and adoration there was acceptable, in proportion as they purified themselves by frequent ablutions, at the facred stages on their upward way. Still they are frequented, but by no means as in former days; indeed, the difficulties thrown in the way of travellers during the sway of the Gorc'hus, and the deterioration of the roads, have rendered Gangotri a place of far less resort than formerly. All these temples, bathing places, and reli-

^{*} The Earthquake of 1803,-Asiatic Researches, vol. xi. page 476.

gious buildings of every description, as well as the town itself, now present a melancholy picture of ruin and decay; even the *Dharam Sálus*, and provisions of charity, have not escaped. There were several fields and rich spots of land, attached to the temple of Parasuram, for the purpose of feeding the pilgrims during their stay here: but they have all either been taken from it, or are laying waste.

July 26.—After a most uncomfortable night and procuring the means of carriage for the baggage with considerable difficulty, we proceeded on our journey, but went in the first instance to view the temples and places worthy of notice; but in fast little remains to detain the traveller, save the trident, which is farely a curious specimen of the taste of the old time. Its three-fold composition, the elegance of instance, and the unknown characters, that occupy much of its shafe, point it out as a singular object of admiration, interest, and speculation, for by what means it came there must I suspect remain quite an undecided point. This pillar has been so minutely described (I have understood,) by Masses and Raber, that it is perfectly unnecessary to repeat here what they must have said.

Ar the turn of the river forming the end of that reach in which Barahát is fituated, there is a jhulla or hanging bridge of ropes, over which leads the direct road to Srinagar; below, the valley becomes broader, and stretches down in a westerly course for several miles.

Leaving the J'hulla on our left, we wound along by a water course, carried for the purpose of irrigation from Barahati-ci gadh, which we crossed and ascended to Barahati village, about 2 miles from Barahati. It has been a large village and it enjoys a fine prospect over all the valley, but upon this, as on the rich cultivation and villages of this valley, the hand of desolution has sallen, and less but ruins.

Just about Lak, hajaru the Bhigirathi began to assume fomewhat more of the character of a great river, spreading out into a wider channel, yet still retaining much of the impetuosi y of the mountain torrent, and it sweeps in numerous windings, through this fine valley which is from 3 to 4 furlongs broad, and confi is chiefly of table land, probably the bed it once ran in, and is here and there finely swelled into rifes; al' is cultivable, and evidently has once been under fillage, and remains of villages in various places evince a once more numerous population; all now is waste, but green and smooth.

Two or three miles from Barahiti, we croffed the Rathor gad'h where we fuffered confiderable detention, while a temporary bridge was thrown over: somewhat further on, scrambling along the river side, we reached a smaller stream Sinhoti-gallh, which we forded with much difficulty, for it was deep and throng. This nullah ends the long reach and valley, and we passed two or three bad steps, where the banks close for a short space, before entering on another, about 2 miles long, in the middle of which the vibage D'handa, is fituated, on a rock overhang. ing the waler, about 7 miles from Burahat. The river flows now in a unisorm course, ull it is joined at the bottom of the reach by Dhunarigad'h, a large stream which slows through a valley apparently rich in cultivation. The opposite side of the river forms part of Dhunari purgunnah, and there is much rice and tillage all around.

AT Dhúnda village we left the river and afcended the hill behind it, first by a gradual easy path, along ledges of cultivation, till we turned the edge of the hill, when a succession of pretty sharp ascents and descents through fir covered hills, carri dus to the village of Petará, our night's stage.

THE village of Petárá is not much better calculated to accommodate travellers, than those we have lately passed through, poor and dirty; but bad as the lodgings and fare were, weariness and hunger made them acceptible. Our mirch we reckon at only 12 miles, but heat and bad roads made it toilsome.

July 27.—The fituation of the village is lofty, and the view from it extensive and beautiful, particularly down the course of the Bhágirat'hí: we recognise from hence too several points, which formed objects of observation in our course up the Jumna, such as the peaks of Bugi and Marmá. Below, the Gadul Gad'h slows through a fine valley, and joins the Bhágirat'hí at Dharasu: from whence, the river runs in a long and comparatively broad valley, well cultivated and studded with numerous villages. Beyond, the eye stretches to the hills above Athúr, and even those near Srinagar are to be discerned.

The road from the village to Dharasu is entirely descent; this place was formerly of some religious consequence, but now is totally in ruins; it is situated on a rock, near the conssuence of the Gadul Gadh with the Bhágirathi. Just at the bridge by which we cross this nullah, there is a temple to Bhyramguru, where two jogis, a man and a woman, reside, for the benefit of pious pilgrims, who are expected to contribute to their support. Rising from the bed of the stream, and proceeding a mile onwards, we reached Barethi village, situated on a rising ground, at the upper end of the valley: a short way from hence, there is an establishment of jogis, who reside at the temple of Mangalanath, where, there are some uncommonly sine mango trees, but the fruit was hardly ripe.

THERE are several villages on either side of the river here: those on the north east bank are to Find perguinsh; that of Qudenere, commences on the

From Barethi, our path lay along this fine valley, pleasant and easy; the river runs chiefly on the eastern side to the debouch of the Nagun Gád'h, a pretty copious stream, from near Marma-ci-Dhar. At this point, two opposite Dhars approach and interrupt the range of the valley, which, however, continues to the south eastward, till shut out by intervening points from the view, though less level and sertile than that we have passed through.

Ar this point, we left the Bhágirat'hí entirely croffing the Nagun nullah, and ascending Jaudagang-ci-D'har: on the sace of this hill, we found many trees of the Tejput, (Laurus Cassia,) the slavour of which was very good and powerful; it is the same with that tree, the leaves and skin of the roots of which forms an article of trade, from Nepál and the lower parts of the hills with the lower provinces, and mentioned by Colonel Kirkpatrick: it was perfectly wild and feemed tolerably abundant. Our ascent continued, chiefly through wood, occasionally along a bare hill fide, and now and then along rice cultivation near small water courses passing several villages, and frequently very steep and painful till we reached Coeffu ci-D'har continuous from the westward with Marma, and fully 42 miles from the place where we left the river, we reckon i from 10 1 to 11 from Petárá. The whole road was wearifome and irregular, and this gorge is very highly elevated, the wood towards the top, besides the common sir, consists chiefly of the long leaved oak, and a species of rhododendron frequently mentioned before, a very extensive view is commanded from hence, but not a peak of the fnowy range was visible; deep and dark clouds rested on them.

From this gorge a steep descent commenced, at first through deep red soapy soil, and then in the bed of a stream called Bil-ci Gádh, which ruses in the pass. We passed along some scanty rice cultivation, and though the miserable ruined village of Macrora, and reached that

of Bhalu, after a very fatiguing descent. It is small, but tolerably clean, and formed our place of lodging for this night. There is nothing worthy of observation here, it is one of 7 villages forming the Bhalu division in the Jounpore district.

July 28—At 7 o'clock we left Bhalu, the path descending rapidly in the bed and stream of the Bel or Bhal Gadh: opposite the mouth of this nullah, but yet a long way off Sowac'hola-ci-Tiba, was observed, a high hill, just above the Dun; the path crossing and recrossing the stream, which is large from heavy rain, was painful and unpleasant; a little below, the stream is increased by Sinhalo-ci-Gad'h, from a wild glen in which are situated three villages, belonging to Bhalu division. Still surther on Mathul Gád'h also joins, and the whole, about 2 miles from Bhalu, takes a westerly direction, uniting with the Jamli Gád'h, which comes in a westerly direction from Dhanauli ci-D,har. The whole waters of the two vallies, at first under the name of the Jamli Gád'h, and afterwards called the Agloha Gad'h, slow westward to the Jumna.

CROSSING the end of Macrel ca-Danda, which forms the point between the Bél and Jamii-Gadhs, and crossing the latter stream, we began to ascend-and passed through little dirty villages, Dangolo and Báhimo; these form a part of the Das-jola purgunnah, and the latter we reckoned 3 miles from Bhalu.

THE hills now were green and rather bare of wood, the houses had totally lost all appearance of the Chinese style of building, degenerating into the common poor Hindustani hut. The dress of the women as well as the men, had began to change even at Barahát, where occasionally cotton cloth instead of blanket and woolen was observed; here cotton is the universal material of dress, sometimes coloured and checked, and the cotton skull cap is in general use.

A steer and hot ascent led us by the miserable village of Gorono, from whence the path lay on the left hand hill fide to a rough wooded descent, and the bed of a dry nullah; hence a very steep zig-zag as. cent brought us to the top of a heighth whence we enjoy an extensive view, and trace the whole valley we have crossed, from its rise in Dhanauli, nearly to its debouche at a village called Gerk, by the Jumna, where it has changed its name, from the Agloha, to the Pália-Gádh. The range of Marma_ci-D'har forms the northern boundary of this large valley, sketching from Jount, and its hills, in the westward, by Coeffu in the eastward, and forming the Seuri and Dhanau i-ci-D'hirs, and stretching to the Bhagirathi; this long range, in its course gives off many subordinate D'hars, which form valleys, that find a general outlet to the Jumna through the Agloha-Gad'h.

· From this station we kept along the face of the hill, for about a mile, where turning sharp to the lest a short but rough descent brought us to the village Belu; this is a small and poor place, but as there are no other resting places between it, and Nagel in the Deyrah Dun, said to be a distance of 12 miles, we were forced to content ourselves with remaining for the night, and probably it was as well to give our weary people some extraordinary rest, as the march for the next day, to Deyrah, was described as a long and fatiguing one.

July 29.—We rose early and got on foot by six, to encounter our day's fatigues. THE road wound along the left hand fide of the hill on arocky path formed entirely of lime stone, to the head of a valley one side of which is formed by the Sowac'hola-ci-Tiba; the place is called Mugra: it is a dark, gloomy, wooded ravine, and in it there is a perennial spring of remarkable coldness: it is one and half miles from Belu. From this place, a sharp ascent brought us to a point in the crest of Sewac holaei-Tiba: and all the beautiful Dun, and the still more lovely and smiling plains of Hindustan, burst full upon our view.

the transfer of the

FROM hence, we obtained a short last glimpse of the snowy hills, and of the peak of Benderpuch'h. Haridwar too was seen, and several other points we could not certainly identify.

The latter part of the descent is precipitous and rocky: from the soot of the hill, we passed along the beds of several small nullahs, which are only formed by the heavy rain, and through the thin jungle that covers the rising grounds at the soot of the hills, till we reached Mogel, a small village, not far in the plain; from hence the path to Dey a is plain and level, through cultivation and mange topes, leaving Lalunga, on our lest. I regretted much that I could not visit this place; but neith r weather nor time permitted; it is indeed too well known to need description; neither does the town of Deyra require to be described, and in sact having only passed through it, I could give no adequate idea of the place. It is about 6 miles from Nagel; the distance of Nagel from Bélu, I cannot so well determine, but am inclined to consider it at least 7 or 8 miles, so that our concluding march was at least from 12 to 14 miles.

The next morning we left the Dun, which was chiefly under water, by the Kearu pals, and reached Saharunpore on the night of the 30th of July.



IV.

OF THE MURDERERS CALLED PHANSIGARS.

BY DOCTOR SHERWOOD, Communicated by Colonel McKenzie.

WHILE Europeans have journeyed through the extensive territories subject to the Government of Fore St. George, with a degree of security no where surpassed, the path of the native traveller has been beset with perils little known or suspected, into which, numbers annually falling, have mysteriously disappeared; the victims of villains as subtile, rapacious, and cruel, as any who are to be met with in the records of human depravity.

The Phánfigars, or stranglers, are thus designated from the Hindustani word Phánsi, (a) a noose. In the more northern parts of India, these murderers are called Thess, (b) signifying deceivers: in the Tamul language, they are called Ari Túlúcar, (c) or musiulman noosers: in Canarese, Tanti Callerú, (d) implying thieves who use a wire or catgut noose: and in Telagu, Warlú Wahrhlú or Warlú Vayshi y Wahrdloo, (e) meaning people who use the noose.

THERE is no reason to believe that Europeans were aware of the existence of such criminals as Phánfigárs, until shortly after the conquest

of Sirangapatan, in 1799; when, about a hundred were apprehended in the vicinity of Bangalore. They did not engage general attention; nor would it appear that they were suspected to belong to a distinct class of hereditary murderers and plunderers, settled in various parts of India, and alike remarkable for the singularity of their practice, and the extent of their depredations. In the year 1807, between Chittor and Arcot, several Phánsigárs were apprehended, belonging to a gang which had just returned, laden with booty from an expedition to Travancore: and information was then obtained, which ultimately led to the developement of the habits, artissices, and combinations of these atrocious delinquents.

THE P'hánsigárs that insessed the south of India a sew years ago, were settled in Mysore, on the borders of that kingdom and the Carnatic, in the Bulaghat districts, ceded to the Company by the Nizam in 1800; and they were particularly numerous in the poliums of Chittoor. The sequestered part of the country, which comprehended these poliums, maintaining little intercourse with the neighbouring districts, abounding in hills and sastnesses, and being immediately subject to several polygars, afforded the Phánsigárs a convenient and secure retreat; and the protestion of the polygars was extended to them, in common with other classes of robbers, in consideration of a settled contibution: or, which was more frequent, of sharing in the fruits of their rapacity.

It is impossible that such criminals as Phánsigárs, siving by systematic plans of depredation, could long remain in the same place in safety, unless their practices were encouraged or connived at by perfons in authority. Hence, after the establishment of the Company's Government over the Carnatic, and the districts ceded by the Nizam, and the consequent extinction of the power and influence of the po-

lygars, some of whom had succeeded in rendering themselves virtual—
ly independent of the former government, these murderers very generally changed their abodes, and frequently assumed other names.

While they lived under the protection of polygars and other petty local authorities, and among people whose habits were in some respects analogous to their own, it was unnecessary to dissemble that they subsisted by depredation. They and their samilies lived peaceably with their neighbours, whom they never attempted to molest, and between whom there subsisted a reciprocation of interest in the purchase and disposal of the plunder which the Phársigárs brought with them on returning from their expeditions. Afterwards, on the extension of the English Government, it was usual for the Phansigárs, while they continued their former practices, osteosibly to engage in the cultivation of land or some o her occupation, to screen themselves from suspicion to which they must otherwise have been obnoxious.

Phainsiga as never commit robbery unaccompanied by murder, their practice being first to strangle and then to risk their victims. It is also a principle with them to allow no one to escape of a party, however numerous, which they assail, that there may be no witnesses of their atrocities. The only admitted exception to this rule is in the instance of boys of very tender age, who are spared; adopted by the Phánsigárs; and, on attaining the requisite age, initiated into their horrible mysteries.

A GANG of *Phanfigars* confilts of from ten to fifty, or even a greater number of persons; a large majority of whom are Musselmans: but Hindu's, and particularly those of the Rajput tribe, are often associated with them. Bramins, too, though rarely, are found in the

gangs. (f) Emerging from their haunts, they sometimes perform long journeys, being absent from home many months, and prowl along the eaftern and western coasts to Hyderabad and Cape Comorin. In general, however, they do not roam to fuch a diffance; but make "one or two excursions every year. Their victims are almost exclusively travellers whom they fall in with on the road. Each gang has its firdar or leader, who directs its movements. Of a numerous gang, some usually remain at home, while the rest are engaged in the work of pillage and murder. Those that are abroad are often divided into separate parties of ten or fifteen persons; who either follow each other at some distance, or, the parties taking different routes, they rendezvous at an appointed place in advince; measures being at the same time taken to secure a speedy junction of the rang, should this be requisite for the purpose of attacking feve al travellers at once. Different gangs fometimes act in concert, ecc: fionally apprifing one another of the approach of travelters whose destruction promises a rich booty.

Phansigans have the appearance of ordinary inoffensive travellers, and feldom assume any particular disguise. They indeed not unfrequently pretend to be traders; and there is reason to believe, that they sometimes come from the dekhin clothed in the garb of bairagis. Formerly, when Phánsigáry was practised to a greater extent, and in a more during manner than at present, the leader, especially if enriched by somet spoliations, often travelled on horseback, with a tent, and patid stor a person of consequence or a wealthy merchant: otherwise, he appeared at first in a more humble character, and assumed in the course of his rapacious progress one of more importance, as he became pessented of horses and bullocks; which, while they afforded him carriage for the plundered property subserved the purpose of giving countenance and support to his seigned character.

⁽f) Branns, it is probable, do not affift in the actual perpetration of murder, but are employed to procure intelligence, in obtaining which their peculiar privileges afford them great facilities.

Phansicals are accustomed to wait at choultries on the high roads, or near to towns, where travellers are wont to rest. They arrive at such places and enter towns and villages in straggling parties of three or four persons, appearing to meet by accident and to have had no previous acquaintance. On such occasions, some of the gang are employed as emissaries to collect information, and especially to learn if any persons with property in their possession, are about to undertake a journey. They are often accompanied by children of ten years of age and upwards; who, while they perform mental offices, are initiated into the horrid practices of the Phansiggis, and contribute to prevent suspicion of their real character. Skilled in the arts of deception, they enter into conversation and infinuate themselves, by obsequious attentions, into the confidence of travellers of all descriptions, to learn from them whence they come, whither and for what purpose they are journeying, and of what property they are possessed.

And well placed words of glozing courtesy,
Buited with reasons not unplausible,
Wind them into the easy-hearted man;
And hug him into suares.

When the Phinsigars determine, after obtaining such information as they deem requisive, to attack a traveller, they usually propose to him, under the specious plea of mutual safety, or for the sake of society, to travel together; or else they sollow him at a little distance, and, on arriving at a convenient place, and a sittle proportunity presenting for effectuating their purpose, one of the gang suddenly puts, a rope or fast round the neck of the unfortunate person, while others assist in depriving him of life.

Two Phánsigárs are considered to be indispensably necessary to effect the murder of one man, and commonly three are engaged. There is some variation in the manner in which the act is perpetrated, but the following is perhaps the most general. While travelling along, one of

the P'hansigars suddenly puts the cloth round the neck of the person they mean to kill, and retains hold of one end, while the other end is seized by an accomplice; the instrument crossed behind the neck is drawn tight, the two P'hansigars pressing the head forwards; at the same time the third villain, in readiness behind the traveller, seizes his legs, and he is thrown sorward upon the ground. In this situation he can make little resistance. The man holding the legs of the miserable sufferer, now kicks him in those parts of the body endowed with most sensibility, and he is quickly despatched.

ANTECEDENTLY to the perpetration of the murder, some of the gang are sent in advance and some left in rear of the place, to keep watch and prevent intrusion by giving nonice, on occasion, to those engaged intheact. Shouldary persons unexpectedly appear on the road, before the murdered body is buried, some artistice is practised to prevent discovery, such as covering the body with a cloth while lamentations are made professedly on account of the sickness or death of one of their comrades: or one of the watchers falls down, apparently writhing with pain, in order to excite the pity of the intruding travellers and to detain them from the scene of murder.

venient opportunity not offering, they will fometimes travel in company with, or purfue persons whom they have devoted to destruction, several days before they execute their intention. If circumstances favor them, they generally commit murder in a jungle or in an unfrequented part of the country, and near to a sandy place or a dry water course. A hole three or sour seet in depth, in such a spot, is dug with facility; in which the body being placed, with the facedownwards, it is shockingly mangled. Deep and continued gashes are often made in it in both sides, from the shoulders to the hands and to the feet, which lay open

the abdomen, and divide the tendon at the heel. Wounds are also made between the ribs into the cheft; and sometimes, if the hole be short, the knees are disjointed and the legs turned back upon the body. The hole is then filled with earth. The body is thus cut and disfigured to expedite its dissolution, as well as to prevent its inflation; which, by raising or causing fissures in the superincumbent sand, might attract jackals, and lead to the exposure of the corpse. When the amount of the property is less than they expected to find, the villains sometimes give vent to their disappointment in wanton indignities on the dead body.

If, when a murder is perpetrated, a convenient place for interring the body be not near, or if the *Phánsigárs* be apprehensive of discovery, it is either tied in a sack and carried to some spot, where it is not likely to be found, or it is put into a well; or, which is frequently practiced, a shallow hole is dug, in which the corpse is buried, till a fit place for interring it can be discovered; when it is removed and cut in the manner already mentioned. If the traveller had a dog, it is also killed; lest the saithful animimal should cause the discovery of the body of his murdered master. The office of mangling the dead body is usually assigned to a particular person of the gang. The *Phánsigárs* are always provided with knives and pickaxes, which they conceal from observation.

From the foregoing account it will be obvious, that the system of the P'hansigars is but too well adapted for concealment. The precautions they take, the artifices they practice, the mode of destroying their victims, calculated, at once, to preclude almost the possibility of rescue or escape—of witnesses of the deed—of noise or cries for help—of essusion of blood—and, in general, of all traces of murder:—these circumstances conspire to throw a veil of darkness over their atrocities.

I now proceed to notice various particulars, more fully illustrating the practices, habits, and character of these criminals.

It is not improbable that formerly a long string, with a running noofe, might have been used by Phánsigárs for, seizing travellers, and that they robbed on horseback. But, be this as it may, a noose is now, I believe, never thrown by them from a distance, in this part of India. They fometimes use a short rope, with a loop at one end; but a turban or a dothi, (a long narrow cloth, or fuch worn about the waist,) are more commonly employed; these serve the purpose as effectually as a regularly prepared noofe, with this advantage, that they do not tend to excite suspicion. When such a cloth is used, it is, previously to applying it, doubled to the length of two, or two and a half feet, and a knot is formed at the double extremity; and about eighteen inches from it, a flip knot is tied. In regulating the distance of the two knots, so that the intervening space when tightly twisted, may be adapted to embrace the neck, the Phánsigár who prepares the instrument tries it upon his own knee. The two knots give the P'hansigars a firm hold of the cloth, and prevent its slipping through their hands in the act of applying it. After the person they attack has been brought to the ground, in the manner already described, the slip knot is loosed by the P'hánsigár who has hold of that part of the cloth, and he makes another fold of it round the neck; upon which, placing his foot, he draws the cloth tight, in a manner fimilar to that (to use the expression of my. Phánsigár informer,) " of packing a bundle of straw."

SOMETIMES the *Phannigárs* have not time to observe all the precautions I have mentioned in cutting and interring a body; apprehensions for their own safety inducing them to leave it slightly buried. Sometimes, also, when a murder is perpetrated in a part of the country.

which exposes them to the risk of observation, they put up a screen, or the wall of a tent, and bury the body within the inclosure:—pretending, if enquiries are made, that their women are within the screen. On such occasions these obdurate wretches do not bestate to dress and eat their food on the very spot where their victim is inhumed.

Is, which scarcely ever happens, a traveller escape from the persons attempting to strangle him, he incurs the hazard of being dispatched by one of the parties on watch. Should he finally escape, or should any other circumstance occur to excite alarm, or apprehensions of being seized, the gang immediately disperses; having previously agreed to re-assemble at an appointed time, at some distant place.

TRAVELLERS resting in the same choustry with Phánsigars are sometimes destroyed in the night, and their bodies conveyed to a distance and buried. On these occasions a person is not always murdered when asseep; as, while he is in a recumbent posture, the Phánsigars sind a disticulty in applying the cloth. The usual practice is first to awaken him suddenly with an alarm of a snake or a scorpion, and then to strangle him.

In attacking a traveller on horseback, the P'hansigars range themselves in the following manner. One of the gang goes in from of the
horse, and another has his station in the rear: a third, walking by the
side of the traveller, keeps him engaged in conversation till, sinding
that he is off his guard, he suddenly seizes the traveller by the arm and
drags him to the ground; the horse at the same time being seized by
the foremost villain. The miserable sufferer is then strangled in the
usual manner.

AGAINST Phánsigárs it must be obvious, that arms and the ordinary precautions taken against robbers, are unavailing. When a person is

armed with a dagger, it is usual for one of the villains to secure his hands. It sometimes happens, that a party of travellers, consisting of several persons, and possessed of valuable effects, are, while journeying in imaginary security, suddenly cut off; and the lifeless and despoiled bodies being removed and interred, not a vestige of them appears. (g) Instances are faid to have occurred, of twelve and sourceen persons being simultaneously destroyed. But such occurrences must be rare; and, in general, the property taken is not considerable. Such, indeed, are the cruelty and capidity of these detestable wretches, that, on the presumption of every traveller possessing concealed treasure, or some property, however trisling, even indigence affords not its wonted security.

Formerly, if good horses, shawls, or other valuable articles, were among the booty, they were commonly reserved for the polygar, in payment of protection. A portion of the plunder was usually appropriated to defraying the expences of religious ceremonies; and, sometimes, a part was also allotted for the benefit of the widows and families of the ceased members of the gang. The residue of the booty, being divided into several parts, was usually shared as follows:—to the leader, two shares; to the men actually concerned in perpetrating the murder, and to the person who cut the dead body, each one share and a half; and to the remainder of the gang each one share. The plunder was almost always carried home by the Phánsigárs and sold greatly below its value:—it was never disposed of near to the place where the per-

⁽g) Near Saular, about ten years ago, three golub peons were killed, having on them money in different coins, to the amount of 16,000 rupees. In 1805, five persons were killed in Coinbatter, and cash to the amount of about 2 500 pagodas, the property of the collector of the district, was taken. In the same year, two rese table no ives, proceeding on horseback from Madras to the Malobar coast, with five attendants, were all killed. In 1807, five persons, besides two others who had joined them on the road, were killed shear Langulers, and tobbed of property to the amount of 1,000 pagodas, belonging to an officer of engineers. And, in 1815, three persons were killed in the district of Masulpatam, and 2,500 rupees taken.

fon to whom it belonged was murdered, nor where it was likely to be recognized, of which the Phánsigárs were enabled to judge by the information imparted to them by the credulous sufferers.

THE frequent affociation of the most abject superstition, with the deepest guilt, has been often noticed. The justness of the observation is exemplified in the conduct of most-perhaps of all-classes of Indian delinquents, and remarkably so in that of the Phánsigars. Their system, indeed, seems to be founded on the basis of superstition. They pay the most servile regard to omens; and they never leave their abodes to go on an expedition, without a previous persuasion, derived from modes of devination in use among them, that it will be attended with success. Though the Phánsigárs are almost all musfulmans, they have nevertheless universally adopted on certain occasions, the idolatrous worship of Hindu deivies. CALL or MARRIATTA, (the goddess of small-pox of the Carnatic,) is regarded as their tutelary deity, and is the object of their adoration. She is usually invoked by them under the names of JAYI, or Ayi, and of Tuljapuni. (h) Before an expedition is determined on an entertainment is given, when the ceremony of facrificing a sheep to Jyu is performed; and though perhaps not always yet in would feem generally, in the following manner. A filver or brazen, image of the goddess, with certain paraphernalia pertaining to her;

⁽b) Colonel Colin Mackinzer, is well known for his fuccessful researches into Indan hittory and, antiquities, observer, in a letter to me, "that it was the custom of many of the ancient heads of families, that have tailed themselves by depredation to rank and power, to conciliate Calii; hence the facistices of that have tailed themselves by depredation to rank and power, to conciliate Calii; hence the facistices of themselves by depredation to rank and power, to conciliate Calii; hence the facistices of themselves by depredation to rank and power, to conciliate Calii; hence the facistices of themselves by depredation to rank and power, to conciliate Calii; hence the facistices of the many said that the facistic state of the said that

on the western ghants, 300 miles west of Hydrabad, on the road to Poonab. I was there in March 1797. On the western ghants, 300 miles west of Hydrabad, on the road to Poonab. I was there in March 1797. It is a celebrated temple of Call, where the pools is performed by a low tribe and not by bramins, who abbor these rives. It is even so much suspected that infamous rites and human victims were offered there, abbor these rives. It is even so much suspected that infamous rites and human victims were offered there, that my head hramin (the late valued Boriab) horior-struck by the accounts he received, urged my depast ture from Tuljapur and was not easy till we got away.

and sometimes, also, one of GANESA; and the images of a lizard and a snake, reptiles from which presages are drawn; together with the implements of Phánsigárí as a noose, knise, and pickaxe, being placed together, slowers are scattered over them, and offerings of sruit, cakes, spirit, &c. are made; odoriserous powders are burned, and prayers are offered for success. The head of the sneep being cut off, it is placed, with a burning lamp upon it and the right fore foot in the mouth, before the image of Jayi, and the goddess is entreated to reveal to them, whether she approves of the expedition they are meditating. Her consent is supposed to be declared, should certain tremulous or convulsive movements be observed, during the invocation, in the mouth and nostrils, while some sluid is poured upon those parts. But the absence of those agitations is considered as indicating the disapprobation of the goddess, and the expedition is possponed.

Apour ten or twenty day's afterwards, the ceremony is repeated; and, if aufpicious inferences be drawn from it, the Phinsigars prepare to depart. But before they determine towards what quarter to promote depart. But before they determine towards what quarter to promote they wish to take to observe the flight of crows and other birds, and to listen to the chirping of lizards. Should success be betokened, the same path is taken. In the signs be adverse, the firdar sends some of the gang to make observations on another road, or at a place where two roads meet; and these votaries of superstition proceed in that direction, which promises, as they infer, the best success.

In the course of their progress, they observe the same scrupulous regard to omens. Emboldened by favorable ones, they are greatly of confraged by those of an opposite tendency. If they have not proceeded far from home, when unlucky signs are descried, they regard

them as premonitions to return:—under other circumstances they either perform certain ceremonies, or they halt for a few days, till the malignant influence, denoted by them, is supposed to be passed; or else they bend their course in a different direction. To the intervention of bad omens, a travell r, over whom destruction was impending, is sometimes indebted for his safety. (i)

On returning also from a successful expedition, ceremonies are performed to Jayr'.

THE Phánsigárs keep the Hindu sestivals of the Dipávali and the Defferah, which they celebrate in a manner similar to that observed among Hindus.

A TRADITION is current among Phansigars, that about the period of the commencement of the Cali Yug, Mariatta co-operated with them so far, as to relieve them of the trouble of interring the dead bodies, by devouring them hers is. On one occasion, after destroying a traveller, the body was, as usual, lest unburied; and a novice, unguardedly locking behind him, saw the goddess in the act of seasting upon it, half of it hanging out of her mouth. She, upon this, declared that she would no longer devour those whom the Phánsigárs slaughtered; but she con-

⁽¹⁾ It would be redicus to enumerate a'll the omens by which they all or theinfelives to be influenced in their proceedings. I shall briefly mention a few of both kinds—pro perous and a liverfe.

The following are favorable figure: — Vlizerd chirping, and a reason which a no fe on a living tree on the left fide. A riger appearing is decided rather a good fign. The notic of a partridge on the right fide, denote that they will meet with good body on the very spot, and they, therefore, are accurbed to make a hit.

These be oken missertune: —A hate or a saike erossing the road before then. A crow sitting and making a nose on a rock or a dead tree. An ass braying while sitting. An owl ferecebong. The nost of a single jickal. If a dog should carry off the head of a sheep which they have sacrificed, they conside. It to betcken that they will ge no body for many years.

descended to present them with one of her teeth for a pickaxe, a rib for a knife, and the hem of her lower garment for a noose, and ordered them, for the suture, to cut and bury the bodies of those whom they destroyed.

WHITE and vellow being confidered the favorite colors of their partronels, and those in which she is arrayed; the cloths for strangling are of one or other of these, to the exclusion, I believe, of all other colors.

RIDICULOUS as their superstitions must appear, they are not devoid of effect. They serve the important purposes of cemening the union of the gang; of kindling courage and considence; and, by an appeal to religious texts deemed infallible, of imparting to their atrocities the semblance of divine sanction.

To the ascendancy of the same superstitious feeling is also to be ascribed the curious circumstance that Phánsigárs are accustomed to restrain from murdering semales, and persons of the Camála cust; which includes gold, iron, and brais, smiths, carpenters, and stone-cutters.) Washermen, potmakers, pariahs, chucklers, lepers, the blind and mutilated, a man driving a tow or a semale goat, are also spared. These persons appear to be regarded either as the descendants or servants of January as, her constant worshippers; or as having claims to the especial protection of the goddess, and are for these reasons exempted from shaughter.

WHER this rule is respected any one of these persons, travelling with others of different casts, proves a safeguard to the whole party; the name principle which prompts the *Phansigars* to destroy every individual of a party, forbidding them to kill any unless the whole.

MANY Phinsigars, who have become informers, have declared that they never knew any of the abovementioned persons to have been destroyed, and conceived that no pecuniary temptation could be sufficiently powerful to occasion a violation of the rule. Others have stated that they had heard of a gang of Phansigars who, having murdered a woman, never afterwards prospered, and were at length destroyed. Notwithstanding the reasons for acquiesting generally in the truth of the statement, that women, and men of particular casts, are spared, the following occurrences, in the latter of which not sewer, than nine persons disappeared, and who were almost beyond doubt murdered by Phansigars, shew that their religious scruples on this point are, when the temptation is great, at least sometimes overcome.

In the latter end of 1800, Mohamed Rous, the subadar who commanded the escort of the Resident of Mysore, being ordered to join the force then forming against the southern Polygars, sent some of his samily, among whom were two, if not three, women, to Madras. They were never heard of until June 1801; when a man was seized at Bangalore having in his possession a bullock which was recognised too have belonged to Mohamed Rous. This man was a Phánsigán; and gave a clear account of the murder, by a gang to which he belonged, of the subadar's family.

The wife of Kistna Row, in company with his nephew, and attended by a bramin cook; two female servants, two private peons, and two coolies, set out from Poonah with four horses to join Kistna Row, then at Nagpúr. They had nearly completed their journey, having arrived at a village about sisteen miles from the place of their destination, and sent to apprize Kistna Row of their approach. Two persons were sent by him to conduct the party to Nagpúr; but subsequently to the departure of the travellers

from the village abovementioned no intelligence could be obtained—no traces whatever could be discovered of them; and though about four years have fince elapsed, all enquiries have been fruitless. (k)

THE utility to such criminals as Phánsigars of signs, and of words and phrases not understood by others, as channels of communication must be obvious. It is accordingly found that several such are employed by them. Some of those in more frequent use I shall mention; and the catalogue might have been easily extended.

Drawing the back of the hand along the chin, from the throat outwards, implies that caution is requilite—that some stranger is approaching. Putting the open hand over the mouth and drawing it gently down implies that there is no longer cause for alarm. If an advanced party of Phánsigars overtake any traveller whom they defign to destroy, but have need of more afficience, they make certain marks on the road, by which those of the gang who follow understand that they are required to hasten forwards. A party in advance also leaves certain marks where a road branches off, as intimations to those who follow of the roete their comrades have taken.

THE following list comprehends several slang terms and phrases in use among them. This language they denominate Pheraseri-ci bát: or, as the term may be rendered, the language of dispatch or emerl gency. .

1 Y

⁽k) I have thated that nine persons were cut off on this occasion, though there is some reason to believe that the party confifted of even a greater number.

KISTER Row had been formesly employed in the confidential ficuation of Shirishtedar under Colonel READ, when this gentleman held the Collectorth p of the territories coded by Tippos on the conclution of the rat of 1793. He afterwards ferved under Culonel Choos at the Residency at Poonab; where he is fill en pl- yed by the British Government.

OF THE M	OKDERELO
266	Comudí (h) hen
Yelu	Sendií coral
Bítri two	n - dún n'hálí pearl
Sancód three	Shaic'h-jí or mustulman
Wodlí four	Make and Khan S ftranger
Panchúrú five	Phinau anto
Serlú and } fix	Contrar (ner) Watcher
Cherú }	Obalości intelligencer
Sat'húrú feven	persons appointed to
Delrii	leize nor lemos
Máhí one hundred Hácadé one thousand	Mahí pickaxe
11achar	knife for cutting
Duacado	the dead body
Delacado	namál a handkeitinet in
Dillato	worn as a turban
Burce fanam	1
Chilta	D'hotí (tel)
Sitac	1 1200 1 2
Cawuaga	a lay: Andrielli been
Curp	Chief Killis
Curpan	n la hant i 1 or 11 p Knot
Newala	e convenient place
Lamcani	K 1 101 mm com 2
MOS (ber)	n Cont name of an entertain-
Agá-í jack	ment given by Phansi-
Raclán (per) Jack Comuda (h) coc	· fande
Comage (11)	•

Nyamet	A delicacy	Phánsígár acceptationA rich manA man of no propertyDitte	ng - ∳ _{gen}
P'hankaná		Was a decree	

Dhol A barber's drum An old man

Man j'harcer do Sweep the place See that no person is near

Kanta pante láoBring firewoodTake your allotted posts

Pán ka rumal nícálo Take out the handker- Get out the doti, &c.

chief with the beetle

Eat beetle Pan KhaóDespatch him.

Roná cero

Implies a flight burial, with the face downwards, the body whole, and covered only with fufficient. earth to conceal it.

Kedbi Gidbi, Dekho, Look after

the straw. Look after the corpse; that is, the Phainsigars proceed to a village after the flight burial, and fend out the appointed persons to bury the body properly, keeping watch that no person is looking.

Kedba bahir pariya The straw is .

come out.

Jackals have taken out the corpfe: you must not go that way.

Bhavani Puter....Descendents of Bhowani. Putur Town of Bhowani Puter. J.

> Used interrogatively to ascertain. without the risk of exposing themselves, whether persons whom they meet on their journeys, and whom they suspect to be of the same fraternity, are so or not. When caution is particularly requifite, the question is

put in the latter and less suspicious shape. The first syllable put ascertains the point of their connexion with Bhaváni, whilst from the termination úr, which signifies a town or village, they would appear to a stranger to be enquiring only about some particular place.

PHANSIGARS bring up all their male children to the profession, unless bodily defects prevent them from following it. The method obferved in initiating a boy, is very gradual. At the age of ten or twelve years, he is first permitted to accompany a party of Phansigars. One of the gang, generally a near relation, becomes his ustad or totor; whom the child is taught to regard with great respect, and whom he usually serves in a menial capacity, carrying a bundle, and dressing food for him. Frequently the father acts as the preceptor to his fon. In the event of being questioned by travellers whom he may need the boy is enjoined to give no information further, than that they are proceeding from some one place to another. He is instructed to sonsider his interest as opposed to that of society in general; and to deprive a human being of life, is represented as an act merely analogous and equivalent to that of killing a fowl or a theep. Arwirst, while a murder is committing, the boy is fent to some distance from the scene, along with one of the watchers: then allowed to see only the dead body: afterwards more and more of the secret is imparted to him—and, at length, the whole is disclosed. In the mean time, a share of the booty is usually affigned to him. He is allowed afterwards to assist in matters of minor importance, while the murder is perperrating: but is not until he has attained the age of 18, 20, or 22 years, according to the bodily strength he may have acquired, and the prudence and resolution he may have evinced, that he is deemed capable of applying the dh uti, nor is he allowed to do so, until he has been formally presented with one by his ustad. For this purpose a fortunate day being fixed upon, and the time of the Desserah is deemed particularly anspicious, the preceptor takes his pupil apart and presents him with a dhouts, which he tells him to use in the name of Javí; he observes to him that on it he is to rely for the means of subsistence, and he exhorts him to be discreet and courageous. On the conclusion of this ceremony his education is considered to be complete, he is deemed qualified to act as a Phánsigár; and he applies the noose on the next occasion that offers.

Arran his initiation, a *Phánsigár* continues to treat his preceptor with a great respect. He occasionally makes him presents, and assists him in his old age; and, on meeting him after a long absence, he touches his feet in token of reverence.

Such is the effect of the course of education I have described, trengthened by pabit, that Phansigars become strongly attached to their detestable occupation. They rarely, if ever, abandon it. (1) Some, narrowly escaping the merited vengeance of the law and released from prison under security, could not refrain from resuming their old employment; and those who, bending under the weight of years and infirmities, are no longer able to bear an active or principal part, continue to aid the cause by keeping watch, procuring intelligence, or dreffing the sood of their younger consederates.

THE bonds of social union among Phánsigars are drawn still closer by intermarriages. Though not of frequent occurrence, instances are

Three are known to have engaged in the fervice of the Company as separa.

not wanting in which they have married into families deemed honest and respectable. The women are not ignorant of the proceedings of their husbands. Persons of mature age are very rarely admitted into the fraternity, and when this has been done, it was only after long and intimate intercourse had enabled the Phánsigárs sully to appreciate the character of their confederates.

To the influence of personal character are *Phánsigárs* usually indebted for becoming the heads of gangs. Like others, who follow lawless and abandoned courses, the *Phánsigárs* are profligate and improvident, and addicted to the use of bang; so that the wealth they may acquire, even though considerable, is soon wasted.

Wherese any Phánsigár were ever capitally punished by the Nabobs of the Carnatic, I know not. One gang, settled in the polium of Chargal, near the Paidnaighrug Pass, between the upper and lower Carnatic, was apprehended about 17 years ago, and fined to the amount of 5,000 rupees by the fubahdar of the province; a mode of pullishment so far from being justifiable, that it could hardly have been imposed except from sordid motives: nor could it sail to give new impusse to the activity of the Phinsigárs, and to render them more than ever rapacious and secret in their barbarous practices.

HYDER ALLI proceeded against these criminals is a very summary manner, and destroyed several of them. In the reign of Transon, some were sentenced to hard labour, and others suffered mutilation of the limbs. While Purniah was dewan of Mysore, during the minority of the present Rajah, highway robbery being frequent, was made capital, and several Phansigárs were executed.

In must be obvious that no estimate, except what is extremely vague; and unsatisfactory, can be formed of the number of persons that have

annually fallen victims to Phansigars in the fouth of India. The number has varied greatly at different periods. There is reason to believe, that from the time of the conquest of Mysore in 1799, to 1807 and 1808, the practice of Phinsigars, in this part of India, had reached its acme; and that hundreds of persons were annually destroyed. (m) The great political changes, which marked the commencement of that period, and the introduction of a new system of government in Mysore, the Ceded Districts, and the Carnatic, though infinitely preferable to the former, yet was it in many respects less jealous and vigilant, and afforded facilities of communication before unknown between distant countries; of which the Phansigars and other criminals availed themselves to overspread the country; and it may be conjectured that many persons, deprived by the declension of the Mohammedan power of their wonted resources, were tempted to resort to criminal courses to obtain a supplishence.

The foregoing description of the Phinsigars is meant to be more particularly applicable to those gangs that were settled in the northern part of the Carnatic and in the Ceded Districts, antecedently to the year 1808. Since that time, they have become well known to the English courts of justice, and their habits have undergone some changes. Many have lest the Company's territories and sled to those of the Nizam, and of the Mahrattas. But though the number of them is greatly diminished, Phánsi gárs still insest the dominions of the Company. The gangs,

⁽m) In one of his reports, the migistrale of Chittar observes:—" I believe that some of the Phanigars have been concerned in above two hundred murders; nor will this estimate appear extravagant, if it be remembered, that murder was their profission, frequentry their buly means of gaining a subsistence: every man of fifty years of age, has probably been actively engaged during twenty five years of his life in murder, and on the most moderate computation, it may be recknied, that he has inside one excursion a year, and met each time with ten victims."

There is heard of any traveller being subbed or murdered on the highway." —Travels in India, translated by Runners.

indeed, confift of fewer persons than formerly; their plans are less systematic, their range is less ample, they roam the country, more secreily; more frequently changing their names and places of abode; and adopting other precautionary measures to screen themselves from justice. Unfortunately, sew of the numerous Phánsigars that have at different times been apprehended could be convicted in accordance with the evidence required by the Mohammedan eriminal law; which admitting not the testimony of accomplices, and rarely the sufficiency of strong circumstantial evidence unless confirmed by the confession of the culprits, their adherence to protestations of innocence has alone, but too frequently, exempted them from punishment. Those that have been tried and released becoming greater adepts in deceit, have, together with their old propensities, carried with them a knowledge of the form of trial, and of the nature of the evidence requilite to their conviction.

THE habits and proceedings of the Phánsigárs it is reasonable to conclude have been modified and varied by different circumstances and events of a local or political nature in the several lates insessed by them, in some places approximating more than in others to the foregoing description. There is every reason to believe, that in the Deccan, and more particularly in the territories of the Nizam, P'hansi gars are very numerous. They will be naturally encouraged to fettle in greater numbers, and to carry on their practices with less caution and secrecy, in a country, a prey to anarchy or invalion, where the administration is feeble or corrupt, or where crimes are constantly committed with impunity. It is also not unreasonable to suppose, that they may occasionally act in concert with other classes of delinquents; and that their proceedings may sometimes be of a mixed nature, partaking of the peculiarities of those with whom they may be in league. In those countries too, where Phansigari has been long practifed, it may be presumed,

that the ordinary artifices will at length become known, and as the fuccess of those murderers must chiefly depend on the ignorance of travellers of their devices, they will perhaps find it necessary to resort to novel and unsuspected stratagems.

I have heard of no instance in which a European was murdered by Phánsigárs. The manner in which they are accustomed to travel in India is perhaps generally sufficient to exempt them from danger; added to which, apprehension of the consequences of strict enquiry and search should a European be missing, may be supposed to intimidate the Phánsigárs, at least in the dominions of the Company. Similar reasons influence them in sparing coolies and parties charged with the property of English gentlemen, combined with the consideration that while such articles would generally be useless to the Phánsigárs, they would find difficulty in disposing of them, and might incur imminent danger of detection in the attempt.

Excited so little interest and enquiry as not to have led to a general knowledge of those combinations of criminals will naturally appear extraordinary. Such ignorance, certainly, could not have prevailed in England, where the absence, if unaccounted for, of even a single person, seldom fails to produce suspicion, with consecutive investigation and discovery. In India the case is far otherwise; and such an event, unless occurring to a person of some consequence, would scarcely be known beyond the precincts of the place of residence or the village of the unfortunate sufferer. Many that fall victims to the Phansigars are the subjects of other and distant states: many have no settled abodes. It must also be remembered that Phansigars refrain from murdering the inhabitants of towns and villages near to which they are

halting; neither are they accustomed to murder near to their own habitations; circumstances which not only prevent suspicion attaching to them as the murderers, and to the local authority as protesting and fharing the booty with them, but tend to throw it upon others, who reside near to the spot whither a traveller may have been traced, and where he was last seen. Besides, a person setting out on a journey is often unable to fix any period for his return; and though he should not revisit his home at the expected time, his delay will, for a while, excite little alarm in the minds of his friends. He is supposed to be unexpectedly detained—to be ill—to have met with some ordinary accident-to have deferted his family-to have died. Should fuspicion arise that he has been murdered, the act is attributed to ordinary highway robbers, and it is but feldom that minute enquiries can be inflituted by his bereaved relatives. But supposing that this is done, . and the progress of the missing traveller traced to a particular place and not beyond it, still suspecion would be ant to attach to any, rather than to a few apparently inoffentive scavellers, journeying either for the purpole of traffic, as is imagined; or, as is often pretended, to see their relations—or, to be present a some marriage; and who, if ever noticed, have perhaps been long fince forgoven. If, notwithstanding all these improbabilities, suspicion should fall upon the actual perpetrators, where could they be found?

Thus with respect to sepoys, who, having obtained leave of absence, never rejoined their corps, the conclusion generally formed has been, that they had deserted—when, in various instances, they had fallen sacrifices to the wiles of the Phánsigárs. The same observation is particularly applicable to golah peons, charged with the conveyance of money and valuables; many of whom having disappeared, no doubt was entertained that they had absconded, and appropriated the property to their own use. Even the apprehension, which an indistinct idea of

thanger tends to create in the minds of these and other travellers, would render them only more liable to fall into the snare. Less persuasion would be requisite to induce them to join a party of *P'hansigars*; prompted by the belief that they were thus providing, in the most effectual manner, for their own safety.

What conflitutes the most odious feature in the character of these murderers, is, that prodigal as they are of human life, they can rarely claim the benefit of even the palliating circumstance of strong pecuniary temptation. They are equally strangers to compassion and remorfe—they are never reflrained from the commission of crimes by commiseration for the unfortunate traveller—and they are exempted from the compunctious villings of conscience, which usually follow, former or later, the steps of guilt. "Phanigiri," they observe, with col i indifference blended with a degree of surprize, when questioned on this subject, " is their business;" which, with reference to the tenets of fitalifm, they conceive themselves to have been pre-ordained to follow. By an application of the same doctrine, they have compared themselves, not imptly, to tigers; maintaining, that as these serocious bealts are impelled by irrefiftible necessity, and fulfil the designs of nathre in preving on other animals, fo the appropriate victims of the Phansigars are men; and that the destiny of those whom they kill, " was written on their foreheads."

This state of moral insensibility and debasement is yet calculated to give birth to pity, while it aggravates the horror with which we contemplate their atrocities. It ought not to be forgotten, that unlike many who adopt criminal courses, the Phánsigárs had not previously to divest themselves of upright principles—to oppose their practice to their feelings; but that, on the contrary, having been trained up from their childhood to the profession, they acquired habits unsitting them

for honest and industrious exertion; that a detestable superstition lent its sanctions to their enormities: and that they did but obey the in-structions, and imitate the examples, of their fathers.

THE T'hegs, (n) in the more northern parts of India, may be divided into three classes. The first consists chiefly of Mohammedans who originally resided under the protection of zemindars of large estates, as HUBA SING, DIA RAM, &c. and in the district of Etawah; including also a few stragglers at other villages. The second class is composed of Hindus, who are for the most part of the Lodeh cast, and is much more numerous than the former. They resided in great numbers in the eastern part of Etawah, and the adjoining district of Cawnpore, until alarmed by the active exertions of the magistrates, by whom many were apprehended. These Thegs had long escaped suspicion by engaging in tillage, and by always carrying on their depredations at a diftance from home. The third class is more considerable in respect to number, and extends over a larger tract of country than either of the foregoing classes. It consides of a desperate association of all casts, which grew up in the Pergunnahs of Sindouse and Purhardy and the neighbouring villages on the Mahratta territories. They travel in large bodies, and are more bold and adventurous than the Thegs in the Company's provinces. Their predatory excursions are chiefly confined to the country that lies to the eastward and southward of Gwalior, and to the province of Bundlecund.

THEVENOT, in the following passage, evidently alludes to the Phán-sigárs or Thegs.

⁽n) The term T'beg is not unknown in the south of India, but it is not applied to the P'hantgars, but to a class of delinquents to whom it seems more appropriate, viz. to cheats or swindlers, who, often appearang as pearl and coral sellers, practice various fraudulent acts, particularly in substituting bad coins for good, which they receive under the pretence of giving or taking change.

"Though the road I have been speaking of from Delhi to Agra be " tolerable, yet hath it many inconveniences. One may meet with "tygers, panthers, and lions upon it, and one had best also have a care of robbers, and above all things not to fuffer any body to come " near one upon the road. The cunningest robbers in the world are " in that country. They use a certain slip with a running poole, " which they can cast with so much slight about a man's neck, when " they are within reach of him, that they never fail, so that they " strangle him in a trice. They have another cunning trick also to " catch travellers with. They fend out a handsome woman upon the " road, who with her hair dishevelled seems to be all in tears, sighing " and complaining of some misfortune which she pretends has befallen " her. Now as she takes the same way that the traveller goes, he eatily 46 falls into conversation with her, and finding her beautiful, offers her his assistance, which she accepts; but he hath no sooner taken her up " behind him on horseback, but she throws the snare about his neck " and strangles him, or at least stuns him, until the robbers (who lie hid) " come running into her affistance and complete what she hath begun. " But befides that there are men in those quarters so skilful in cashing " the snare, that they succeed as well at a distance as near at hand; and " if an ox or any other beast belonging to a caravan run away, as " fometimes it happens, they fail not to catch it by the neck." (0)

The alluments of women into lituations, where they are murdered and plundered by persons lying in wait for them; but, whether by that class of criminals who are properly called *Phinsigars*, I am uncertain. This method, as well as that of administering intoxicating and poisonous mixtures to travellers, though inconsonant with the habits of the large

^{. (}a) Thevenor's Travels, part III. page 41.

gangs, who are not accompanied in their excursions by women, may perhaps be reforted to by smaller and more needy parties, who rob near to their own abodes, or who, having no fixed habitation, continually roam with their families from place to place.

WITH respect to the practice of throwing the noose from a distance, as mentioned by Thrushor, and which is that of the Binjaris in India, to recover their strayed bullocks, (p) I conclude it to be the same as was resorted to in battle (according to Firdausi) by the ancient Perfians and other Asiatic nations, for seizing and binding their enemies, and dragging them off horseback. The cammand, (literally a rope or noose,) said to have been formed of silk, or of the dried skin or sinews of animals, is mentioned in various parts of the Shah Namah. Thus, in narrating the exploits of the renowned champion Rustum, it is said:—

Rustum advanced like a furious elephant.

His cammand in his arm full fixty coils.

(p) TAVERNIER, sperking of the Circassans, observes:—" Ils ne se serven point de chiens ni d'oyscaux pour la chisse, & quand ils y vent ils s'assemblent d'ordinaire sept ou huit des principaux du village. Ils ont de si bont chetaux qu'a la cours ils saiguent la beste & la forcent de se rendre. Chacun tient toute preste une corde qui a un nœud ceulant & c'est atachee a l'aiç n de la felle, & ils sont si adroi s a la jeter au col de la beste qui se rend de lassitude qu'il y en a peu qui leur echapent."—Tom I. Liv. Troisieme, Ch. XI.

The laqui of the South American Indians, enables them to firike and entangle animals at the diffance of 300 paces. It is a fluip of leather, five or fix feet long, to each end of which is fastened a flone about two pounds weight. The humilinan, who is on horseback, holds one of these flones in his hand, and while the other round like a fling as swifely as possible, in order to hurl it with more force, when he throws it at the saimal he has singled out, which he is almost certain of striking.

The laqui of the Spanish praints of South America, in the use of which they are amazingly expert, differe from that used by the Indians in having a single mode, to place of a ball at each end. It is their principal weep n, for they employ it on all occasions, both in hanting and in their private quartels. ULLOA says, that the Spanish peasantry can strike and halter the object of their at ack, with almost unersing certainty, at the distance of 30 or 40 paces; but that a small distance, such as 10 or 15 paces, renders their dexterny in some measure inest study.—Vide Encyclo. Brewst Art. Chili.

بيامد زالاو بكشاو بند به فتراك بست آن كياني كمند

He loofed Aulad (q) from his bonds,

And tied his Kyanian (r) cammand to the bow of his faddle.

کوازپشت زین شان نجم کمند ر بودم بسروپای کردم به بند

For from their faddles, with the noofe of my cammand, I tore them, and bound fast their heads and feet.

باید اخت آن آب دا ده محمد ببکی سوار ان سب کرد بند

He threw the well-twifted cammand

And caught many a horsemen on the same spot.

بهواز دست رسیم را شد کمند سسر ناجدار اندرآمد سه بد

When the cammand issued from the hand of Rustum,
The crowned head (s) became imprisoned,

In the same manner as the cammand, the Pa'san, (Tel) or Pa'san, (Tem) literally a rope, was also, it is probable, used by the ancient Hiudu heroes in war. If the authority of the Ramayana were allowed to be sufficient to establish the point, it might be afferted that there were three forts of Pa'sas known to the Hindus: two, viz. the noose of justice and the noose of death, pertaining to Yama; and one, the noose of the water, to Varuna. They are mentioned in the following passage among the weapons presented by Viswamitra to Rama.

धर्मापाश्तयेवासंकासपाशञ्चदुड्डियं वाक्रणञ्चापितेगशन्दयामिपरमाचितं

⁽q) A prisoner to Rustum in the plains of Mazenderay-the Perfian region of magic and romance,

⁽r) From the dynasty of ancient Perfian Kings fo named.

⁽s) Allading to Khacan or the King of China, who, feated on his elephant, was taken prisener by Russian a great battle, in which the former had come to the affiftance of the Turks against the Perfant.—Sign to D Herbelet's Bib. Or. Art. Khathai, &c.

"I give thee the Dherma-páša, and also, the missile weapon belonging to it; the cruelly-conquering Ca'la-páša, and the highly valued Varun'a-páša." (1)

SIVA is fometimes, though very rarely, represented with the PÁSA; (v)—VISHNU, as HARI, is invoked in the Bhagavat, and said to hold it in one of his eight hands; and GANESA, as the lord of wiles, stratagems, &c. is almost always represented with the PÁSA.

How long the country south of the Kistna has been insessed by Phánsigárs I know not, though it is certain that they have been settled in the Poliums of Chittor for at least a century. On this point the Phánsigárs themselves are quite ignorant, knowing in general little more than that their fathers and grand fathers followed the same horrid employment, and taught it to their children. There is however no reason to suppose that the practice in this part of India, is of great antiquity. It may also be a question whether to the Hindus or to the Musselmans ought to be considered as attaching the reproach of inventing this detestable system of pillinge and murder. The respect paid by Mussalman Phánsigárs to the omens and modes of divination, and to the religious and idolarous rites of the Hindus—a respect apparently not accidental, but which pervades, and seems interwoven with their whole system—affords grounds for the belief, that to them, rather than to the Musselmans, is to be ascribed the invention.

On the other hand it may be argued, that had these bands of murderers consisted primarily of Hindus, it would probably have appeared

⁽t) Book I, section 26.—The learned transfertors of the RA MATANA, flate the para to have had the power of entangling or binding the foe, and suppose it to have been a kind of gin or net.

⁽a) A print, in which JAYU or SIVA, and QUENERADI or GAN S. A, are represented with the passage will be found in Picart's Customs and Religious Ceremonies, Vol. III. page 457.

that the practice was of considerable antiquity; in which case there could hardly have been that prevailing ignorance among the Hindus with regard to it, which is found to exist. It is a practice mare in unison with the habits and customs of the Musselmans than with those of the Hindus. The gangs at least in the southern parts. of India, confist chiesly of Musselmans, and similar practices, it has appeared, prevailed in Hindustan in the time of Shah Jehan and Aurung. ZEB; and probably much anterior to the reigns of these monarchs, and have continued to the prefent day; and if, as I have been informed, Arabia and Persia be insested by P'hansigars, little room is lest to doubt that these murderers came along with the Mohammedan conquerois into India, and that they have followed the progress southward of the Mohammedan arms. In support of this opinion it may be observed, further, that in the more fouthern provinces which were never, or which fell latest, a prey to Mohammedan conquerors, Phansigars do not appear even yet to have established themselves. I have not heard of any gangs being found to the fouth of Salem in Baramahal; and even these, there is reason to believe, but recently migrated thither from the Poliums of Chittofr, and the zillah of Culdapah. With respect to the Hin lu usiges, adverting to the disposition observable among the 'lower orders of both nations to adopt the rites and customs of each; other, they may have been introduced and eagerly received among agnorant and superstitious offenders, ever prone to embrace a scheme which ferves the purpose of tranquillizing the mind without requiring the abondonment of criminal habits, either by Hindu converts to Islamism, or by fuch Hindu criminals as retaining their religion, attached themselves to bands of Phánsigárs. Charter to the

RICHARD C. SHERWOOD, 1973

Surgeon on the Establishment of

Fort St. Georges

As a Supplement to Mr. Shemwoon's paper on the class of robbers and murderers in the southern parts of India, denominated P'hansigars, and in confirmation of the intelligence received by him respecting a similar "class of criminals, under the appellation of Thegs, who insest the upper part of Hindustan," Mr. Harington submits to the Society an extract from an official document of a recent date.

As connected with the subject, he also lays before the society an extract from the same document, respecting other descriptions of robbers and vagrants, in the wellern provinces.

OBSERVATIONS

REGARDING BADHEKS AND THEGS.

Extracted from an offical report by Mr. John Sharespear, Acting
Superintendent of Police for the Western Provinces, dated the
30th April, 1816.

HE most heinous robberies committed in these Provinces are perpetrated by gangs of Badheks and Shighal Khors. These gangs are almost exclusively settled in the District of Aly Gher, and in that part of the territory of the Nawab Vizier, bordering the District of Goracpur. After much inquiry I am disposed to believe that the Badheks of Aly Gher, and the Shighal Khors of Baraich, are connected with each other; and are one and the same people; the name constituting the sole distinction. Exclusive of the Shighal Khors established in the country of the Nawab Vizier, the following tribes of Jackal eaters are notorious in the Western Provinces:—1st, Badheks,—2d, Kunjar;—3d, Gidia, 4th, Bauria,—5th, Harbura. All of these substituting by robbing, and are

more or less attached to a vagrant life, eating the flesh of jackals, lizards, &c. When stationary, they commonly reside with their families in temporary huts, constructed of reeds and leaves, and erected in jungles and plains. The term B dhek is said to be derived from the Sanscrit word, "Badh," "destruction."—The following Distich is taken from a Hindee Author.

- " Hit anhit sab hot hyn, Tulsi dur din pae,
- " Badheo, Badhek mirg bán te rudhír ké dét butae."

Which may be rendered-

O Tulsí, friends become enemies in the days of misfortune; even as the blood of the tricken deer ferves as a guide to the Huntsman (destroyer).

The Badheks of Aly Gher and the Shigal Khors of Goracpur are out-casts of Musselman as well as Hindu tribes; the majority however are Rajputs. The records of this office shew a subdivision of classes amongst the Badheks, as the Sudanki, Dushadhal, Jaran, Danpi, Fhipti, Badharah, Powar and Chowan, the two last of which are also the distinguishing names of Rajput tribes.

The Badheks are divided into separate gangs, each consisting of from thirty to an hundred followers, headed by a jummadar; and these gangs occasionally unite for the purpose of carrying on their depredations with greater certainty of success and dispatch. They are commonly protected by zemindars, who support their families during their absence, and assist them when they are apprehended and get into trouble; becoming security to the Police for their suture good behaviour, and employing them oftensibly as ryots; but, in safe, harboring and encouraging them in their predatory habits, for the sake of the propor-

tion of plunder, which they invariably receive. They are also frequently supported by petty Mahajuns, who advance them money at an exception interest.

Some of the Badheks share such booty as they obtain; others receive a monthly stipend of two or three rupees, from their jummadars, who also seed and maintain them at a considerable expense, supplying them with spirituous liquers, of which they drink inordinately. The jummadars have generally considerable sums of money at their command, either for immediate expenditure, or for obtaining their release by bribery, when apprehended.

FORMERLY numbers of Badheks infelled different parts of the Diftricts of Alygher, Etawah, Furruckabad and Agra. At prefent those residing in the Company's Western Provinces are settled on the estates of the Chieftains of Moorfan, Hatras, &c. in Alygher, and some sew in the district of Agra. The rest are established in great numbers in pergunnahs Atroula, Balrampur and Baraich, in the North East quarter of the territory of the Nawab Vizier, and also in the vicinity of Gohad, Gwalier, Bhertpur, and the country to the westward of Dehli.-The gangs generally make excursions once a year, in the profecution of which they journey several hundred miles: -Those in Angher have been known to range to Saharanfur, Haridwar, I yenew, Allahabad, Be-. nares and Jaypur; and those in Baraich to Chaprah in the district of Saran, to Hazari Baga i Lamgher, and to Ahuhabad. On some occasions they travel separately, and meet at a given spot, or they follow one another in detached parties, in which case, they fasten shreds of cloth to trees; or pile up mounds of earth or dung, as marks to 'guide those of their brethren who follow their footsteps. They travel, not unfrequently, disguised as fakeers or Pilgrims, with the water of the Ganges, carrying in their kawers, or caskets, heads of spears to arm them-

selves; and food for their subsistence. At other times their janadars journey through the country as merchants; accompanied by their gangs, and women as fervants: with camels, carts, tents and doolies. Previously to their commencing these expeditions, they send out their spies, difguised as religious mendicants, commonly as byrágis, to obtain intelligence in any town or city where they may determine to proceed. It is the business of these spies to gain correct information regarding the hoards of cash or jewels in the houses of merchan's and others, or respecting dispatches of treasure. In the principal cities are to be found persons styling themselves jamadars, who supply the bankers and merchants with hired peons, for the safe-guard of treasure or merchandize. Some individuals of this description have been ob-Served to rife to great opulence in a short time. In several consessions of Badheks apprehended in Furruckabad, Sáran and other places, it is flated that the Badh & spies collude with those jummadars; and instances are mentioned of the Badheks having themselves been hired out by these jamadars; to serve as peons for the protection of the treasure which they intended to plunder. The farrafs and mahajans, whether from falle economy or from circlessiles, usually fend, their money under very insufficient escorts; and it is a common practice to attempt to remit and conceal a dispatch by sewing up the money in the clothes of the peons—When the spies have obtained information, they prepare bambus, as shafts for spears, which they bury under ground with torches for the use of the gang-They endeavor also to arrange for the reception of the gang, on their arrival, with some zemindar or local refident, with whom they may have been formerly acquainted; or they felect some retired jungle or ravine where they may remain concealed till the time of action.—On the arrival of the gang the jamadar arranges his plan with the spies.—They then quit their place of concealment, dig up the bamboos and torches, and fixing on their spear heads, proceed, as early in the dusk of the evening as possible, that they may have the night before them for retreat.—If a house is to be robbed, they station men to guard all the approaches, whilst they effect the robbery; and they invariably murder or wound all who come in their way.—They are equally sanguinary with the guards escorting treasure; and frequent instances have occurred of sepoys having been surprized and butchered at night.—In the doolies they carry off their wounded, as women, with the purdahs down; and as in some of these robberies, hajims or village barber surgeons have been apprehended with the gangs, it is probable that these persons accompany to dress their wounds—Immediately the robbery is essentially that the whole of the night, in the direction of their homes, with great rapidity; and divide their booty on the following day, at the first savorable spot; when they separate and return to their places of abode by different routes.

The class of Shighal Khors, called Kunjars, are said to have formerly been very notorious as dacouts.—There are however, very few of this class remaining in the western provinces, and those, for the most part, earn a livelihood by the manufacture of cord, baskets and by cutting wood, &c. &c. The Bawria and Harbura classes of Shighal Khors are particularly squalid, and searcely human in their appearance. The greater part of them have for time to time, been expelled from the Company's territories, but there are still many remaining; and numbers frequently make temporary incursions from the Mahratta States. These are the men who follow camps, and are particularly expert in cutting into, and stealing from tents. They are not so notorious as geng robbers, as samed for their skill as thieves and cut-purses; robbing in crowds of people, and passing the stolen property from one to another, and practising other similar tricks to prevent detection.

THE Gidias are similar in their habits to the two classes last mention. ed, and are likewise famed for imitating the noise of animals, when they approach to rob, and for disguising themselves in skins to avoid detection.

Or these classes, the Badheks are by far the most numerous and destructive to the peace of the country; and the circumstances under which they rob, combined with the precautions which they take, by giving two or three names to each individual, and using a cant peculiar to themselves, render it extremely difficult to bring them to justice.

Much scepticism still prevails regarding the existence of any distinct class of prople who are designated Thegs. Persons have been apprehended, tried and convicted, for highway robbery and murder, under circumstances similar to those which distinguish the crimes of this description ascribed to the Thegs; but no instance has come to my knowledge of any individual having been convicted of highway robbery and murder, against whom it has been established that he was a professed Theg, who earned a subsistence by the commission of this crime. The result of such enquiries as I have made upon this subject, leaves, however, little room for doubt, that there are at present persons residing in the Company's territories who practice this species of robbery as a profession; various confessions in this office shew, that regular societies of these men have had existence, communicating together and making, at stated periods, a division of their spoil.

The term "Theg" is usually applied, in the western provinces, to persons who rob and murder travellers on the highways, either by poison, or the application of the cord or knife.—The literal meaning however, in its common acceptation, as given in the samiliar proverb, is "villain," "rascal," "knave," &c. which also is the signification appli-

ed to the term in GILCHRIST'S Dictionary.—" Bhágalpur ca Bhagalia, Cahalgeng ca T'heg, Patna ca Dewália, tínon nám zad:" or, " the Bhaugulpur Cheats, the Cahalgeng Knaves, and the Patna Swindlers, are notorious." They are known also by different appellations in other parts of India, as would appear from the following extract from a work recently published.

FORBES'S ORIENTAL MEMOIRS.

"SARENGEUR is famous for a a manufactory of mustins for turbans and other cottons, which are cheaper than any we have met with. A jathera or religious sair, is occasionally kept here, a which our fellow traveller, Stad Mahommed, a particular friend of Sir Charles Maller's, was present on his last journey to Delhi; when several men were taken up for a most cruel method of robbery and murder, practised on travellers by a tribe called Phánsigárs or stranglers, who join passengers frequenting the fair in bye-roads, or at other seasons, convenient for their purpose. Under the pretence of travelling the same way, they enter into conversation with the strangers, share their sweetmeats, and pay them other little attentions, until an opportunity offers of surdenly throwing a rope round their necks, with a slip knot, by which they dexterously contrive to strangle them on the spot."

In the part of *India* to which the present report relates, there would appear to be five distinct classes of robbers of this description, who rob and murder on the highways.

1/t Class.—The high roads leading through Etawah, Aly Gher, and Furrackabad are, for the most part, the scenes of the atrocities committed by this class. To so great an extent did this crime prevail in former year, that during 1808 and 1809, not less than 67 bodies were taken

out of wells in the fingle district of Etawah. The gangs composing this class were established and fostered in the estates of the Chiestains HIRA SINH, BHAGWANT SINH, and THACU'R DAYARAM in Aly Gher, and of HIMMET SINH, the former Raja of Fta in the district . Etawah, and some detached parties also resided in different parts of the three districts above named. In 1811, a list of 68 persons and several sirdars called jamadars, composing these gangs, was given into this office by persons who were induced to deliver themselves up to Colonel GARD-NER, under the hope of pardon. They were all Muffelmans and chiefly of the Mewati tribe. By the confessions made by the members of these gangs, they appear to have carried on their malpractices in small parties, assuming various disguises, resoring to the Serais, and accompanying travellers under specious pretences, to have watched their opportunity, and to have destroyed their victims in retired places commonly by strangulation, the knife being used also, to secure complete destruction, and the bodies being usually thrown into wells or nullahs. Deleterious drugs are faid to be used only by novices in the business, the more experienced Thegs trusting rather to the certain effects of the knife or cord, than to the doubtful operation of poilon. These murders are most frequent in the hot winds, at which season travellers are induced to start on their journey before day light to avoid the heat.

2d Class.—This class consists exclusively of Hindus, and chiefly of the Lodeh tribe.—They are stated to pass themselves on travellers as brahmins and cayets, and are reported to be much more numerous than the 1st class.—The scene of their depredations has been, for the most part, on the confines of Etawah, and the Western thannahs of the Cánpur district, and they are stated to be oftensibly engaged in cultivating small spots of land, though in fact supported by the more line

crative profession of Theggy. The murders committed by these pt ple are effected by means similar to those practised by the 1st class.

3d Class.—This class was formerly settled in the pergunnahs of Sindoufe and Perhara, from whence they were expelled, and have fince taken up their residence in Mahratta villages, on the confines of our territory, where the aumils of the native Governments are faid to derive a revenue from their depredations. From the examinations, it would appear, that these Thegs are Musses and Hindus of various tribes. The murders committed by these gangs appear to be perpetrated more openly than those committed by the first two classes; whole parties of travellers being destroyed together, and the bodies of these victims being frequently found unburied on the plains. The depradations of this class are faid to have formerly extended over different parts of the Doab, but latterly, to have been directed to the country near Gwalior and to the diffrict of Bundelcand. It does not appear that the crime of murder by Thegs was known in the district of Bundeleand prior to 1812, but, in consequence of the dispersion of the Sindouse Thegs, no less than 19 instances of the offence were ascertained in 1813, in which 35 bodies were found with marks of the knife or cord. Very confiderable gangs of these people are said to be at present collected in the Mahratta states. Mr. WAUCHOPE, on the 21st instant, writes-"But a few weeks have elapsed since a party of 42 "travellers (men, women and children,) were every one strangled by a " large body of Thegs. The travellers were coming from Jebbelpur "towards Purma, and the murders took place about the frontier be-"tween the Nagpur and Purma country. Four of the miscreants were " seized by an officer of the Purma Chief, &c. &c."

Ir would appear from examinations in this office, that the punishment for this offence in some of the Mahratta states, is by enclosing

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the criminal alive in a pillar constructed of masonry. The joint megistrate of Etawah writes, that a gang of Thegs, seized not long since by the Chiestain Mir Khan, were subjected to amputation of each hand, and to the loss of their noses.

4th Class - Several instances of murder on the highways in the diftricts of Allah ibad, Ghazipur, and Juanpur, will be observed in the detailed reports for the last year, said to have been perpetrated by perfons assuming the garb of bairagis, who join travellers at maths and accompany them on the road, take an opportunity of mixing the feeds of the Datura or other narcotic plant, with the hooka or food of the traveller, and plunder him when stupissed or killed by the effects of the dose. These murders are not, I apprehend, committed by the persons termed T'hegs-as poisoning would appear to be the only means of destruction used by these robbers. At the same time, as they have prevailed for some years, particularly in the district of Jumpur, and the circumstances attending each case are nearly alike, there seems reason to believe, that some affociation, similar to that of the Thegs of the Doab, is established in Juanpur and its vicinity. Pilgrims proceeding from the west and north west to Gáya, or to Jagannath in Cuttack, take Benares in their way, and pass through the district of Juanbur. In like manner pilgrims proceeding from the lower provinces, pils through Juanpur, in their way to Haridwar, or to Mathura and Bindraban. The circumstances of various roads meeting in this district, combined with the facilities afforded for escape by the proximity of the country of the Nawab Vizier, are probably the causes why this offence is more prevalent in Juanpur than elsewhere.

5th Class.—Travellers have been frequently found murdered in that part of the country placed under the joint magistrate stationed at Ghazipur. The bodies have commonly been discovered buried, and

the same offence can be traced to the eastward, through the districts Saren and Tirhut. In the detailed report on the state of the police, ring the last year, in the jurisdiction of the joint magistrate of Ghezipur, a case will be found stated, in which it appeared from the magistrate's enquiries, that a fraternity of gofains had long been established in that quarter, who were faid to entice travellers to fojourn at their math, particularly sepoys, and to murder them. It is not stated what means of destruction are used by these people; but in the examinations taken before Mr. CRACROFT, the zemindars would appear to be concerned with the gosains in these nesarious practices; and it is stated by a witness, that numbers of travellers have, for years, been made away with, in this quarter. The establishment of chokies, on the highways principally infested by these miscreants, and the employment of the village watch in aid of these chokies, are, in every respect, the most certain and efficient arrangements which can be devised for the suppression of this crime.



MEMOIR.

RELATIVE TO A SURVEY OF KEMAON.

With some Account of the Principles, upon which it has been conducted.

By Captain WEBB,

Communicated by the Most Noble the Parsident.

HE progress made in the survey of Krmaon induces me to submit an abstract of the results before His Excellency the Commander in Chief, presaced by a short memoir, not merely to exhibit, what has been done, but with a view to obtain instructions, as to the degree of minuteness, with which it may be deemed expedient, that the survey in question should be made up.

The number of places, whose latitudes, longitudes, and elevations, are included in the annexed catalogue, is considerably greater, than that of places on, and near the Ganges river, by Mr. R. Burrow," which latter forms the basis, on which the whole map of this side of India has been made to rest.

Is it is not required, that the map of Kemaon should be more detailed, than those of other districts under this Presidency, it may be sufficient to fill up the work by routes and information: the present list of elevations may alone, be sufficient to convey a general idea of the physical aspect of the country.

BUT as great attention has been attracted to surveys of this nature, since M. Hums plat's account of New Spain has been published, and from other considerations, it is probable, that the work will be thought incomplete, if not accompanied by vertical sections. Hitherto the want of birometers, none having yet reached me in serviceable condition, has prevented my attempting a continued section, which could scarcely be effected by geometrical methods only, as no continued lines of stations could be selected, the distances of which can be determined with sufficient accuracy for this purpose.

In might also be desirable, that some approach to a physical map should be had, with a view to facilitate geological and mineralogical refearches, which may by possibility, lead to important consequences. It cannot be doubted, that the mountain districts contain the precious metals, from the well known fact, that the lands of almost every mountain stream are assiduously washed for gold at the points, where their rapidity diminishes. The tribe of people, who follow this avocation, are denominated Boksa, and their employment is by general report attended with ample profit. The gold dust supplied by the rivers of Africa; has long made an opinion current in Europe, that some losty central land exists, which may rival South America in its mines of the precious metals—and the same speculation seems no less applicable to the mountains of central Asia.

I have it also in view to point out a service of great practical utility, which may be derived to geography from a knowledge of the true position and elevation, of several snowy peaks in the *Himáláya* chain, of which my survey already includes upwards of thirty, and most of them are visible from the plains.

With scarcely an exception, surveys in Bengal have been made by the compass and perambulator only, and those who have had much

experience in measurements of this description, are well aware, that five miles in an hundred is not an impossible error.

The known positions of snowy peaks afford a ready mode for determining the true geographical place of any station, from whence they are visible, and may therefore be applied to the correction of maps compiled from route surveys of the description just named. It may be well to detail the several cases, in which they may be so applied, and I have appended to this memoir examples of most of them, from which a tolerably correct idea may be formed, of the degree of accuracy, which may be expected to attend the results.

CASE 1st.

THREE snowy peaks, the geographical positions of which are known, being visible from any place or station—and the horizontal angles they subtend at that station being observed—the distance of the station from each peak, together with its latitude and longitude, become known also.

CASE 2D.

The latitude of a station being observed, and also the true azimuth of a single known peak—the distance between the peak and the station, and the longitude of the latter, become known also.

CASE 3D.

The angle of elevation of any peak, the heighth and polition of which are known, being observed, and the heighth of the station being also known—these data are competent to give the distance between the peak and the station; and if the azimuth of the peak be observed, the latitude and longitude of the place of observation become known also. This case comprises the method adverted to by M. Humboldt in his "Geographical Essay," under the denomination of "Vertical Bases," and which he appears to have adopted very extensively. The survey of a menutain province may thus be accomplished by aid of ba-

rometrical observations only, and with extreme accuracy, if the stations be not very remote from each other, and are so chosen, that their relative difference of elevation shall be considerable.

CASE ATIL.

THE distance and heighth of a known peak, together with its observated angle of elevation, give the absolute heighth of the station of observation—or, if this be known, the prevailing degree of refraction may be obtained: which latter it may sometimes be important to know; far to the westward for instance, where the surface of the country undulates considerably, or within the mountains.

CASE 5: v.

As, by some of the foregoing, the true distance, and relative position of two-or more stations on the plains of India, may be correctly sound, it follows, that the true positions of snowy peaks, not at present known, as well as their altitude, may be found, and that such peaks will again enable an observer to determine the position of any number of stations on the plain, or within the mountains, from whence they may be wishble.

In appears, therefore, that the politions of fnowy peaks, already obtained by my furvey, are amply sufficient to correct the geography of a vast belt of country: the breadth of which, in a southerly direction from the Himaloya range, averages from one hundred and thirty miles, and in length somewhat exceeds that of the range itself.

The general direction of the Inowy chain is from W. N. W. to E. S. E nearly, to which of course the belt is parallel, and if from such a line even perambulator routes were surveyed in a southerly direction, so is to make but small angles with the meridian, the erconom, mea-

furement would not fensibly vitiate the longitude of the place come to, which is the element most difficult to obtain. That error would affect the latitude almost exclusively, and every tyro in practical astronomy can correct the latitude by celestial observation to within a sew fathoms of the truth; and thus it appears, that the limits of geographical correction, for which a means is offered by a knowledge of the positions of peaks in the Hinálaya chain, may be made to extend far beyond the points, at which the peaks themselves cease to be visible.

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Principles upon which the Survey of Kemaon has been condused.

The base is a line, nearly in the direction of the meridian. The latitude of the station, at either extremity, having been carefully observed with a circular instrument, and the angle of an azimuth made by one of them with a meridian passing through the other, astronomically determined, the length of the base was calculated with those data. The value of the meridional degree is assumed to be 60,600 sathoms.

FROM the base so obtained, triangles were extended in the usual manner, the three angles being observed in all practicable cases. The sides of these were next computed in order, by plane trigonometry, the instrument made use of being divided only to 20 of a degree.

Tuz latitudes of the feveral stations were now calculated, the angle of azimuth being in all cases either referred to the original base, or all conomically computed. In every instance of trial, the latitude computed from the survey agreed with celestial observation, so nearly, as to leave it doubtful, which might be in error.

But it was defirable to have a station of verification, if I may so term it, as far south as possible, and I selected Pilibhit for this purpose. The geographical position of the great mosque at that place had been given by Mr. Burrow in this catalogue, and I purposed adopting it, as the sirst meridian of my survey; by which means, my map would be immediately connected with that of Rohilkhand, and I reserved the verifying of the absolute longitude of Pilibhit, till leisure and opportunity should permit me to make a series of observations, correspondent with others at the Madras Observations for that purpose.

The snowy peaks, Nos. XIII, XIX, and XXV, are distinctly visible from a grove, near the town, which became my station, and I was enabled to connect it with a minaret of the great mosque by a single triangle, one side of which was measured. The true azimuth of the minaret, and the distance so obtained, gave its difference of latitude from my station of 51.4 southerly. Also the latitudes of the snowy peaks, we fixed by my survey, were respectively.

$$XIII = 30 \ 15 \ 36,1 \ N.$$
 $XIX = 30 \ 12 \ 15,1 \ N.$
 $XXV = 29 \ 52 \ 45,7 \ N.$

The horizontal angles, subtended by the abovementioned peaks; were observed, and their several azimuths astronomically computed.

Assuming the position of the snowy peaks to have been truly given by my survey, I computed, (as in Case 1st,) their respective distances from my station, which came out by the calculation as under;

These distances, computed with the true angles of azimuth, gave their differences of latitude, and consequently the latitude of my station, and that of the mosque as follows:

Entitude of snowy peaks - Differences of latitude	X111 :	=.30 15 36,1 1 36 19.8	XIX = 30 12 15.1 $1.32 58.2$	1 13 25,2
				· ·
Intitude of station		28 39-16,3	28 39 16,9	28 39 17,5
Morque south		0 0 51,4	0 0 51,4	0 0 51,4
		-		
Latitude of mosque	****	28 38 24.9	28 38' 25,5	28, 38 26, 1
•			Andrews Street, Street	Control of the local division of the local d

The latitude of the mosque, by Mr. Burrow's observation, is 289.38' 20" N.

This very exact result may be admitted, as a proof of the correctness of the base, the smallest error in which would have been sensibly selt, when its operation was extended to distances approaching to ten times its own length, or nearly one hundred thousand sathoms.

I NEXT computed the differences of longitude of all the stations from *Pilibhit*, using, what is generally termed, a table of meridional parts for that purpose. It was not till a month ago, that I was much gratified by finding, that M. Humboldt had adopted the same method in his survey of Mexico, and that he had even used the same table, that given by Mendoza de Rios.

Being now affured, that the distances given by my survey were trustworthy, it became necessary to determine the heighth of the several stations above Rohilkhand, and approximately above the sea; but the exather became hazy at Pilibhii, and it was not till my arrival at Casipur, that a savorable opportunity for this purpose presented itself.

The Inowy peaks, Nos. XI, XII, XIII, XIV, are diffinally visible in Casipur; and their respective heighths above that place, and also above Casi Math, a high mountain near Almora, were calculated from their observed angles of elevation at each. The refraction being allowed at is of the intercepted arch, though is not probable, that exactly the same degree prevailed at the mountain station, and that on the plain, give results as under:

						\
"Above Cás ípur Above Cás í Matth		Feet Dit o	XI. 20019 6 14269,2	XII. 84724,4 16845 6	XIII. 21684,0 15895,8	XIV. 54904.3 19252,2
Cálí Mat'h sheve Cá	is'íj ur	Ditto	5750,4	5878.8	57×8,2	5652,0
The mean of the for Assumed heighth of				h above Cávípu	r	5767 leet 650 Dara
Approximate heighth	of (ali N	1-t'h abo	re the are		***	6417

The preceding differences, should, of course, be exactly equal to each other, but the uncertainty with respect to the refraction due, together with the possible errors of observation, at both stations, are more than sufficient to account for the existing discrepancy. The mean of the whole is taken as the heighth of Cali Math above the plains of Robit-khand, and Casipur is estimated to be 650 feet above the sea, which cannot be very wide of the truth.

ALL the heighths of places within the hills, have been referred to this altitude of Cáli Math, either directly, or with intermediate flations; also $\frac{1}{16}$ of the intercepted arch, has been uniformly allowed for the effect of refraction, in computing the altitude of fnowy peaks, and $\frac{1}{16}$ of the fame arch, for all points below the inferior limit of congelation.

It is at present my opinion, that both these quantities exceed the medium effect of refraction; under the circumstances, in which the observations are made, and though it is not necessary to exaggerate heighths, already enormous, I am inclined to believe, that all the elevations err a little in defect, in consequence of having used them.

It remains to thew examples of the cases I have suggested, in which the known positions of snowy peaks may be usefully applied to the connection of geographical maps, constructed from perambulator measurements.

CASE 1sr.

THE computations at *Pilibhit*, an abstract of which I have already given, furnish an example of this kind; and it has been shown, that the latitudes of the place of observation as obtained severally, from three very distant snowy peaks, do not differ from each other more than a single second. It may therefore be presumed, that the distances are equally correct, or that the error upon any one of them does not exceed twenty sathoms.

On account of its great simplicity, I subjoin a graphical solution of the problem in that particular instance.

In the preceding diagram the station near Pilibhit is represented by P. 1, B, C, are the snowy peaks, Nos. XIII, XIX, XXV, respectively; PA, PB, PC, their distances from the station; PA, PA', PA'' their distances of latitude. PN is a meridian passing through the station. The things known are marked with a line (') the things required with a cypher (0).

CASE 2D.

Is that most likely to occur in practice, as it affords a means of computing the longitude of the station from observations of a single known peak.

It supposes to be known, the co-latitude of the peak, the co-latitude of the station, and the angle of position at the latter; to find the arch of aistance, and the angle made by meir meridians at the pole, or which is the same thing, their difference of longitude.

The following are inflances, in which I have computed the longitude of places in Robilcund by this method.

The first station is a walled garden a little to the eastward of the town of Casipur, four snowy peaks were visible and gave the longitude abelow:

The longitude of Cásipur according to Mr. Burrow is 78° 51' being 2'6" more easterly. But the longitudes given by Mr. Burrow are deduced from astronimical observation entirely, and he himself, suggests that some of them may be as much as five minutes in equal.

THE next station is the village Chemrowa, in the Rampur jaghir.

THE third and last example was obtained the fort of Afzelgerh.

The snowy peaks, Nos. VI and VIII, are comprised in the cluster supposed to be Badarináth, and by a reference to the conditions of the triangle, which assigns their position, they will be sound so unsavorable as not to promise a result of great exactness.

It will also be observed, that the angles made by the azimuths of the eastern peaks with the meridian are very considerable, and that the smallest error in the assumed latitude or azimuth, will produce a very sensible essent, under these circumstances.

THE longitude of Aszelgerh by Mr. Burrow is 78° 33' 40', or easterly of mine 1' 33'.

THE difference of longitude between Pilibhit and Casipur, is by Mr. Burrow 2' 6" lefs than by my furvey. And the difference of longitude between Casipur and Ascelgerh is o' 35" greater, than by me, although his station at the sormer place, was to the westward of mine.

And it is evident, that though the errors of astronomical observations may be such us or minus, indifcriminately, such cannot be the case with

trigonometrical deductions from fixed points. I have used the same peak No. XII and XIII both at Cásipur and Aszelgerh.

CASES 3 and 4.

I HAVE already noticed that to attain great accuracy by these methods, the difference of heighth the stations should be considerable, and the distance not very great; especially when the angle of elevation or depression, can be observed at one station only. Not being provided with barometers, I have no such example to offer, as I could wish, or as the methods themselves are fully sufficient to afford.

WHEN the arch of distance is very great, and the angle of elevation extremely small, the varieties to which the refractive state of the atmosphere is subject, will alone occasion discrepancies of vast amount. That this is the case, will be clearly seen by the following approximations, in which I have supposed the stations to be precisely on the same level with Cásipur, which is not of course, strictly true.

STATION AFZELGERH, EXAMPLE I.

		1		
Refraction.	٥	12	7 8	24
Distance No. XII. by case 3d, Frue Distance of No. XII	77820 78843	80266 78843	79124 78843	79018 78843
Errors.	-1023	+1423	+ 581	+175
D. Co. Cinn	0	·	·	
Refraction.		7.5	18	<u> </u>
Distance No. XIII, by case 3d	79779 80895	823.6 80895	8140 3 80895	80926 80895
Errors	-1116		-1-508	+31
Refraction.				2.4 ×
Distance No. XV. by case 3d.	87107	90558	89371	88812
True Distance No. XV	89018	89018	89018	59018
	-1911	+1540	+363	-906

STATION CHAMROWA, EXAMPLE II.

Refraction	•	1 1 R	1ंद	14	1,1	1/2
Distance No. XII. by Case 3d Frue Distance of No. XII	94679 98578	97397 98578	97979 98578	98952 98579	98485 9857 8	98831 98578
Greore	-3899	-1181	-599	-326	-93	+253

THE true distances of the snowy peaks, which have been used as a standard of comparison in the preceding examples, were derived by Case 2d.

In seems reasonable to infer, that the refractive state of the atmosphere demanded an allowance, in the first example, equal to about $\frac{1}{12}$ of the intercepted arch, and in the second to $\frac{1}{12}$ nearly.

Had the mean state of refraction, which I assume to be it for snowy peaks, been used in these instances by a traveller, desirous to know his place in the map, his conclusion would have been erroneous by about. I a mile, at Afzelgerh, and by something less than 1½ mile at Chamrows. He might still, however, console himself with reslecting, that, even were it possible to find a level road to the Himslays, a derambulator surveyor could not measure the distance, after many day's labor, with any chance of obtaining it so correctly, as it had been thus acquired by an observation, which was made and computed in twenty minutes.

I CANNOT at present offeren example of the 5th Case, as no snowy peak is visible from any part of Robilcund, where I have been, the position of which is not already established by my survey of Kamaon.

Catalogue of Places, with their respective Latitudes, Longitudes, and Elevation above the Sea, as derived from a survey of Kemaon.

BY CAPTAIN W. S. WEBB, Surveyor.

		۰ ۱ ر	J						
	707	s of Pla	~P.\$.		Latitudes.		Longitudes	r. E.	levations.
No.	Name	\$ 0,1 T + 00.			•	-			Feet.
					28 38 20	N.	79 41 45	E	
1 Pil	iblift, (the	Great 1	Maeque.).	• • • •	28 39 16.9	• • •	79 42 19.8	}	6417
Cı.	itian (A) (in Grove	HERL GHE	0	29 38 11.5		79 30 19 6	3	22145
C4	'i Math. (Gork	itockade.)	• • •	30 49 47.9	2	78 51 197	ì	22058
£n	owy Perk	I. (Great	t Himálaj	a.)	30 49 4.1		78 52 11.		22840
		11.			30 46 22 3		78 55 16 9		21611
		Ш.	••••		30 45 46.9	9	79 58 46.		19165
		IV.			30 38,28	g.	79 4 49.		23493
		v.	• • • •		30 42 22	9	79 6 10.		22578
	•••	VI.			30 41 57.		79 7 28.	.9	23164
10		VII.	• • • •		30 43 40	9	79 8 17	_	21311
		VIII.	• • • •	• • • •		. &	79 15 18		15733
	••••	1X.	• • • •	• • • •	30 20 15	9	79 98 0		20686
		Х.		••••		, ì	79 33 40		23963
	••••	XI.	••••	••••	30 17 59	.5		f)	92313
15	• • • •	XII.	• • • •	••••	30 15 36	1	79 43 40		25663
	••••	XIII.	••••	••••	30 21 51	.7	79 45 39		52418
	••••	XIV. XV.	••••		30 16 13	, 3	50 54 25 50 5 20		17994
	••••	xvi.	•			3.7		9.7	19:63
	• • • •	XVII.	• • • •	••••	30 11 14		80 7 5 80 19 4		21439
		XVIII	•	••••	30 14 3				22635
	••••	XIX.			30 12 1		80 15 4 80 15 4		20407
	••••	XX.			30 9 2		80 28 5		18083
	• • • •	XXI.			30 5 4		80 30 2	9	19497
		XXII	_		30 6 1		80 41	3 6	22727
25			11		29 59 3		80 50		24138
			V	••••	29 57		80 51		22277
		VVI			99 59 4 99 50 4		80 51 3		21045
	Snowy P	cak XX	V (. (11am	alaya.)	99 49 4		80 54	9.3	20913
3.		tXX	711.	••••	29 39		79 22	4.2	6526. 7 578 5 -
•	Requi 1	eniolo. 🔐			29 47		79 9	32.8	7193.9
	Nyathana	a Forte	• • • • •		29 34		79 24	4.7	8433
	Sighi Oal	k Tree.			29 28		79 13	1.1	7272.2
	Radbun	Dhan Per	ik		29 47		79 17		9060 6
	Duna G	iri Templ	e. ,		49 49	349	79 20		7030.9
	Bhatcot	Penk	• • • •			42.7	79 25	8.2	6828 b
	Abri De	o Peak.	• • • • •		29 45	56.5	79 30		7896.6
	Gana N	ath Stock	800	• • • • • • • •	29 42	1.9	79 35		6961-19
	Binser 1	€8 k		******	29 36	34.9	79 40		5520.6
4	O Shom D	eo Lempi	e		29 35	7.9	79 29		7710 0
	Fort M	0118	••••		29 28		79 99		6725.9
	Mote h	er resk.	****		29 53		79 32 79 41		6923.8
	Banden	Peak	ion)		.50 36				7627 6
	Shem D 15 Pin Nat	eo. (Tiat			29 49		79 23 80 2	97 5	76165
•	15 Pin Nat	n rempo	nle	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	49 47		79 51	40.7	7796-7
	Bagua	ry. Bung ren		• • • • • • • •	99 42		79 51	90 3	65943
	[(A) ['6)	ation 1				_	80 7	45.1	8168 3
		esk		-				27 2	8148 6
	50 Therit				29 30	١7.٧	# 17 ¹⁶	-	
	#U # III								

No.	Names of Places.	Latitudes.	Longitudes.	Elevations.
_		N.	. E.	Feet.
Hai	ghthe above Ascot. (Station.)	29 45 46 3	80 56.8	5502.9
Sira	cot Temple	29 48 28.9	80 3	6852.1
Rán	ah Bishi Peak	29 42 49 9	80 40 I	7805.4
Hún	n Penk	29 58 35.5	80 !8 9	9847.4
55 Cut	algérh Fost,	99 24 13 9	79 53 38 4	6321.7
Ban	cu Penk	29 20 36.1	80 3 7.3	6061.2
Byn	Chari Fort. (Dotes.)	29 33 9.7	80 15 58 3	5543.2
Calí	Nágh Peak	29 51 36.1	79 57 13.4	7496.
Char	rálék'h P. (iu Dotee.)	29 34 55.9	80 19 6.4	5544.4
60 Rou	lacot. (Ditto.)	29 33 15.7	80 24 6.5	8291.2
Go's	I Lékh P. (Ditto.)	29 29 1.9	80 14 57	8194.8
Chat	munh Temple	29 35 41.5	79 11 35.9	6355.7
	at Gangá Feak	29 37 31.9	79 52 57.6	7192.2
	Chúla l'emple	99 37 31.9	80 1 11.4	7034.9
	bbpur Temple	29 38 17.5	79 15 34 4	6306.9
	ei Na'o Fort	29 35 45 7	79 0 32.4	497 s.1
	bger'h Fort	29 58 4.3	79 10 53.3	0357.7
Asco	t Village	29 45 17.5	80 10 35.9	6016.7
	ila Penk. (Búřan.)	29 54 42.1	80 16 52 5	13455.1
	Shica P. (Dotí)	29 46 41 5	80 24 1.2	10133.3
Suica		29 41 31 9	80 21 10.5	9176.3
	d Nágh P.	29 37 37.3	80 3 58.9	70787
	t Lebug (Summit of the Pass (a)	30 19 43.3	80 27 24.9	18870.6
	Village. (Bútan)	30 14 40.5	80 22 45.5	11488.8
	of the Cali R. below Ascot			3273,2
	Dhúa Temple	29 24 83	79 43 17	6669,6
	oatí Stockade	29 21 30	80 0 44	6324,8
	awat Cantonment	99 19 45	79 56 17	8467.5
	eak	99 45 27	79 56 10	5837.8
	l Bág'h	29 38 20	79 28 3	3889.
	Stockade	99 35 13	79 29 8	5187
	t Browne,	29 35 44	79 30 45	5705
	ark's Tower	29 35 40	79 30 28	5404
	Almora.	29 35 30	79 30 0	5337
	Mall.	29 37 22	79 27 9	5144
	nen Peak. (Bacan)	90 18 46	80 28 49,0	10662.2
	Village. (Ditto,)	29 57 40 1	80 26 24,7	6310
	Peak ab. Golaghi. (Himalaya.)	29 8 19	80 32 38	21150.
	ing Ghati. (Butan.)	30 1 12	80 27 15	11651.6
90 Runju		30 57 48	60 25 95	6779
	na Village. (Ditto,).	99 55 32	80 28 45	6211.8
	or Secalpunt. (Dieto.)	29 56 30	80 25 36.3	5218 6
Cila E	Bridge over the Dhulí R. (Do.)	20 00 00		3811.2
Confi	ience of Rela Gher & Cali		•	3721.8
	R. (Ditto.)	29 53 56	80 24 0	3924.8
	below Luma. (Ditto.)	29 54 18	80 23 45.8	6564.2
	Village, (Bootan.)	29 52 57	80 23 27	\$686.5
But'hi		29 55 27	80 24 15	\$931,2
Shacú		29 48 31	80 0 16	4443.2
_	thar, Village	29 47 23	79 56 55	4224.8
	Dehis Temple.	29 48 11	79 52 52	5120.1
	Village.	29 50 43	79 51 49	5717.4
	cí Tháu. (Temple.) ••••	29 48 10	79 51 45	\$703.5
	i Village.	29 46 12	79 53 53	5375.3
Dhan		29 46 43	79 54 31	4341.5
105 Bude		29 50 31	79 51 52	5730.6
Loha		29 50 31	79 53 33	5734.8
Derau		29 51 30	79 52 0	\$618.4
Sauli	Ditto,	29 \$0 50		
-auli	DITTO, 4000 11000	26 40 44		

Names of Places.	Latitudes.	Longitudes.	Blevalions.
Ve Itames of I tour			Feel
		80 41 32.6 E	10200.2
(D'lan)	30 6 55 N	70 41 3200 -	18398
Parbia village. (Pútan.)	30 2 18.4	8() 39 41.0	109832
Alt. Namiang. (Hillistay")	30 6 1	80 39 46	12670 4
Tries Mation flear Charles	30 9 7	80 42 23	19857'2
Soon Bridge over (Alspant Le.	30 9 28	80 46 2	14433.8
'R. 4. Rik'hi P. (Hita'n'ya.)	30 11 19	80 41 18	17597.8
Mandarin's Camp (Bullett)	30 11 45	80 48 10	
as Chart or Pass to Facility.	30 13 17	80 45 0	22441.4
No. 1 of Cuntas. (Humbers.)	30 12 47	\$() 46 8	20991.8
No. 1 of Canal		80 42 52	15245.4
No. 2, Kuwa Lekh P. (Búian.)	30 8 0		11341.4
Station near confluence of the Culi an	30 8 16	80 41 31	
Station pear correction of the		80 40 16	15811.4
(álapání Rs. (Bootan)	30 7 28	80 25 49	
20 Sithi Lekh P. (Himalaya.)	30 5 12	80 27 17	
Bouling village. (Butan.)	30 3 21	80 43 28	
Phakul ditto. (Ditto.)	30 10 30	79 46 40	62737
Cálapání Fountain.	29 28 2		7596 1
Deodar Ghat. (b)	29 24 25	10 -0	6732.
195 Ghagar Ghat. (c)	29 47 45	70 26 7	4271.
T 1 A SI ACK SI #	29 19 18	79 23 53	
Surface of the Lake, Bleen 121,	29 12 18	78 48 54.1	
Kissennit (Robilcuna)	28 46 28.9	78 58 10.8	!
1474	20 23	78 32 9.5	
l a licial Managa l'alacea d'interiore	1 20 20		13
	30 12 43	81 2 10	14500
- Chinasa Mactory	, 01/ 44	1 ki 2 10	1
Lake Vianasrovar. (Ditto ditto.)	30 23 7		

⁽d) A ch'habutra, or Sat'hi at the southern extremity of the lake.

REFERENCES.

No. 73, (a.) With extreme difficulty, and I may add, with extreme peril, I was fortunate enough to accomplish the passage of Libig Ghátí, without accident on the 6th of June 1316.

Nos. 124, 125, (b,) (c.) The new road from Bamauri to Almora, recently constructed at the expence of the 2 kish Government, crosses both these points.

No. 126, (d.) The shape of the lake Bhim Tál approaches more nearly to a triangle, than to any other regular figure, the length of the longest side is about a mile, and that of the shortest sive furlangs. Its extent appears to have been much greater at some sormer period; and the diminut on it has experienced, is evidently to be attributed to deposition by the streams slowing into it. There is still depth of water fusficient for a first rate line of battle ship to ride at anchor. Lieut. Stephen, who had a small canoe on the lake, struck soundings in 64 feet or nearly 11 sathoms, about the central parts, and the banks shelve very rapidly.

APPROXIMATION E; the position of the pass leading to Taclacet is already given by my survey; the direction of Taclacet was pointed to me north 82° cast from thence, and its distance from the eastern descent is one day's journey for laden goats; the above bearing, with a horizontal distance of eight miles from the summit of the pass, cannot give a very erroneous position to Taclacet.

The direction of Manfarovar was also described to me by many persons, who had visited it to be about north 30° cast from Taclacet and the distance two day's journey, for laden goats, which as the road is level may perhaps be 14 miles.

By this information I have affigued, what I imagine to be the geographical polition nearly of the mona tery, mentioned by Mr. Moor-chorr, and which I conclude to be lituated on the western bank of the lake, but as Mansarevar is stated to be of an elliptical shape, and to have its diameters equal to cleven and seven miles respectively, it seems at least probable that the latitude and longitude, I have given will fall somewhere within the limits of the lake itself especially if it be remembered, that the place at which my information was obtained, is not so much as twenty miles distant from Mansarovar.

All the Tariars and Bhátias who were with me were of opinion, that the castern descent of Taclacet Gháti was not greater than the western, and hence we may conclude that the elevation of the losty table

land of central Asia is nearly the same, as that of the Deba's camp. (No. 114,) or 14,500 feet above the level of the sea.

ALTHOUGH several of the preceeding latitudes, and longitudes, are inserted to the tenth part of a second, as given by the calculations, it is by no means intended to convey an idea, that the principles, on which this survey is conducted, can attain to that great degree of exactness.

Every figure of even the most trivial computation will be found in the field books, which I have transmitted to the Surveyor General's Office: in so much work, when the survey in the field and all its dependant computations rest with an individual, a few errors may be excused; some I have discovered and corrected, though none have been pointed out to me, some may still remain.

Upon the whole, I flatter mysels, that in the more essential parts, this survey will bear comparison with any, that have been performed in Bengal, and I can only lament that I have not been able to collect the materials into a map of suitable external appearance.

VI.

CEREMONIES

OBSERVED AT THE CORONATION OF A HINDU RAJA, Br. Mr. BROWN.

A S the observance of any public ceremonies amongst the Hindu population of India is daily falling into disuse, and as they will consequently be known at no distant period from tradition alone, it may perhaps form part of the objects of the Asiatic Society, to procure such descriptions of them as eye-witnesses of their performances are qualified to contribute, and to preserve in the transactions of the society, such memorials of their past existence—with this view I beg leave to offer to the acceptance of the society the following account of the coronation of the Raja of Colastri, at which I happened to be present.

In order fully to comprehend the causes that then led to that ceremony, it is necessary for me to state the political situation of the Ráj of Colastri at that period.

The arms of the Tartar conquerors of India never penetrated into Malabar, the inhabitants of which preserved their ancient government, religion, and customs, until the invasion of Hyder Ally from the neighbouring province of Canara about the year 1766, with a numerous army, put an end to the Hindu government, by the expulsion of the Rajas and chief men, most of whom sled to Travancore. As the Mapilla chiestain of Cananore, Ali Raja, had urged Hyder to, and assisted him in this conquest, he, as a reward put him in possession of the Raj of

Colastri on condition of paying an annual tribute. The government of the country being then transferred from the Hindus to fanatical Muffelmans was, during the course of 12 years which Ali Raja held it, almost completely depopulated; murder and rapine prevailed in every quarter, fo that no Hindu remained in it who had the means of getting to Travancore. During this long period, little of the slipulated etribute had been paid, and Hyder therefore willingly listened to proposals made to him by one of the princes of the Colastri family, (who had been protected in the Honorable Company's settlement of Tellichery) to pay him tribute if restored to his country. The negociation was carried on through Domingos Robrigues, the Company's linguist, a man of great wealth, who becoming fecurity for the payment of the tribute, the Raja was put in possession of the Raj, in 1776-7, with full powers to re-establish the ancient government. This was immediately done; the exiles were recalled, and reinstated in their landed property, but the country from follong a course of oppression and spoliation, afforded flender means of realizing the tribute; whilst the residents, under the name of harcwas, placed with the Raja to receive the tribute, and to observe and report his actions, augmented his distress by their rapacioutness. The first year's tribute was advanced by Domingos Rodaiguas, but subsequently the revenues still continued unequal to the demands on them, and therefore, after the country had been restored to some kind of order, the expedient of crowning the fenior Raja, for the purpose of raising money, was resolved on. It is here necessary to explain that the law of succession adopted in this family, and indeed in all the Raja families of Malabar, is, that the senior male, by the semale line, fucceeds to the first station of Colastri Raja, in whose name the government is conducted by an acting Raja whom he appoints, and who is in fait the ruler, the other after being crowned, retiring to accutain fort with all the enfigus and exterior marks of dignity, where he palles his time in the performance of religious ceremonies. What probably rendered

the adoption of this mode of delegated government necessary is, that as the number of princes in the family is generally confiderable, (the fons of all the daughters fucceeding each other according to priority of birth) the fenior is always far advanced in years and past the term of active life, before he comes to that dignity. The fenior raja, in the present instance was a very aged man, not less, I judged, than 70 years of are. He had hitherto remained in Travancore, probably to avoid the expence necessary for his establishment, but was now brought from these, that the finances of the Raj might be recruited with the contrabutions due, by custom, not only from its own subjects but from the other rajas and chieftains connected with it, on the performance of this ceremony; at which also attended deputies from the fitelement of Mahi and Tellicherry, each presenting a box containing a certain fum in gold, in conformity to ancient custom. The bi vains having fixed on an auspicious day in the month of December 1778tts notice of it, and invitations, were fent far and near, and great preparations were made by the acting raja for the actommodation, and entervainment, of the mulitude that were expected to affemble from all parts of Malabar and the countries of Cochin, Travancore and Pálchat.

The place which immemorial custom had prescribed for the performance of this ceremony was a fort, named Maday, situated between the overs of Ballia patam and Cavay, in an open spot, and more spacious than Malabar forts generally are. Here on an elevated spot under a canopy, a kind of throne, but not higher than a common chair, was placed. About one o'clock p. m. the raja was brought in a covered palankeen, attended by many bramins, to this chair, and seated in it, but concealed from the spectators by perdus held up before him, whill the people were made to fall back to a distance of 20 to 30 yards in front, and bramins were there stationed to prevent any person going beyond those

limits. The concourse of people afsembled was very great. Into the fort the chief people only had been admitted; the multitude were without the walls in vast numbers, but from the elevation of the spot on which the throne was placed most of them could see it.

The propitious moment being arrived, the perdas were withdrawn and the raja exposed to view with the crown on his head. Various rites were then performed by the bramins, whilst others recited invocations and chaunted stanzas appropriate to the occasion. This continued for about half an hour, when the chief bramin, or priest of the Raj advanced, having a stat silver dish in his left hand, containing a little sine unboiled rice. He approached so close to the raja as to be able to reach the crown with his hand, stopped and recited a prayer or invocation. He then took a little of the rice in his right hand and dropped it on the crown. This he repeated three times letting the rice fall slowly, whilst he at same time continued to proclaim in a very loud voice the new titles of the raja with invocations or prayers composed no doubt for the august ceremony.

THE silence of the multitude without, as well as within the fort, during all this was admirable. The awe and reverence with which they beheld the rites and listened to the bramins was so great, that not a breath was to be heard whilst they continued, so that the voices of the bramins were distinctly heard out of the fort; but the moment for adoration, which was that when the last rite with the rice was completed, was no sooner come, than a simultaneous shout burst from the whole, so loud and sudden and so striking to me, from its being totally, unexpected, that it seemed the shout of Milton's pandæmonium realized.

THE adoration at the same time began, and continued as long as the Raja remained exposed, which was above an hour, during which the

offerings were presented and received by the attendants. During the same time gifts of cloths and money were distributed amongst the bramins and their women, the number of whom alone was immense, all of that cast of the adjacent countries and many even from Tanjore having assembled. For their accommodation also, very extensive wooden buildings had been erested, in which they were seasted with dressed victuals, consisting of rice, dhál, ghee, curries of various vegetables, with papadoms, (fine cakes, made of gram flour, and a fine species of alkali, which gives them an agreeable salt taste and serves the purpose of yeass, making them rise and become very crisp when fried) plantains and other fruits. This entertainment, which was for the bramins and their samilies only, continued three days, twice each day.

THE gestures made use of on this occasion to express their adoration, were sufficiently remarkable to merit a description. The person standing erect lists his hands to his face and joins them open, the singers stretched and reaching a little above the eyes; the singers are then drawn down to the palm, and the hands drawn back from each other to the distance of eight or ten inches, then replaced as before, and the same motions repeated, which when performed by every individual of so great a multitude formed a very singular scene.

The crown was of gold, but the distance at which I was placed, prevented me from noting any thing but its form, which resembled that of the Tiara, worn by the Roman Pontists, before it was dissingured into a triple crown by the arrogance of Boniface and Benedict. When we consider with what minuteness the Hindus adhere, even in matters of minor importance to the practices of their ancestors, we may conclude that the form of this crown was very ancient, and is therefore worthy of remark as being different from that of any diadem worn by princes either now or at former periods; but that the

cap of ceremony of the high priest of the Temple of Jerufalem was not unlike it.

This ceremony on the whole affords two subjects worthy of confideration. First, the rite of sprinkling rice over the crown, whilst on the head of the raja, so different from any practice in the west of modern or ancient times. The rite now in use of anointing princes at their coronations is of modern institution, and generally admitted to have been borrowed or imitated from the Jews. Secondly, the circumstance of its being a ceremony arising out of a feudal system of government, at which all the vassels were obliged to appear, and to contribute to the expence of it, each according to his rank; and that it should have been resorted to for the purpose of filling the raja's costers in a similar manner to that in which our own princes often rendered the seudal ceremonies subservient to similar purposes.

I have the honor to be, Sir,

Your most obedient servant,

A. BROWN.



VII.

ANALYSIS OF THE SNAKE-STONE.

BY

J. DAPY, M. D. F . S.

SNAKE STONES, it is well known in *India*, are fubstances employed by the natives as remedies against the bite of venomous serpents.

THE forms of these stones and their external characters have already been described by more than one author, but I am not aware, that any account has been published, yet, of their chemical nature.

For those stones which I have examined, I am indebted to the Honorable Sir Alexander Johnstone, Chief Justice of Ceylon. They were of three different kinds.

The first kind were small bodies, round or oval, nearly white towards their circumference and black or brown at their centre; they were polished, possessed a slight degree of lustre and had a pretty appearance, in consequence of which and their supposed virtues, they are occasionally set and worn as neck-ornaments; they were of moderate hardness, easily cut by the knife, but not scratched by the nail; when breathed on they emitted an earthy smell like clay, and when applied to the tongue or any moist surface, they firmly adhered to it.

Before the blow-pipe they gradually became perfectly white and lost a little of their substance, yet they emitted no sume or odour or

flame. Pat into dilute nitric acid a very flight effervescence was produced which was momentary, when the stone was in powder; in a few hours the whole of the stone was dissolved with the exception of a very minute portion of carbonaceous matter. This solution on the addition of ammonia afforded a copious precipitate, which was insoluble in weak oxalic acid. The precipitate being separated by siltration, the sluid was rendered turbid by the last mentioned acid.

RESULTS which prove that these stones are composed of phosphate of lime, with a little carbonate of lime and slight traces of carbon. Thus their composition is the same as that of bone partially calcined, which I have no doubt, they are in reality: their physical properties are those of calcined bone as well as their chemical nature; calcined bone like the stones admits of being polished, affords when breathed on an earthy small, adheres to moist surfaces and in saft has every real property which these stones possess.

Another kind of fnake-stone, of which I saw only a single specimen, was a small oval body smooth and shining, externally black, internally grey; it had no earthy smell when breathed on, and had no absorbent or adhesive power. By the person who presented it to Sir Albxander Johnstone, it was much valued and for adequate reason, if true, "it had saved the lives of sour men at least."

BEFORE the blow-pipe it emitted a flight finell like that of vegetable matter burning and became white. In dilute nitric acid it disfolved and effervesced strongly, and until the whole was dissolved the effervescence continued. The folution was not precipitated by ammonia, but copiously by carbonate of ammonia. The precipitate before the blow-pipe was converted into pure quick lime.

FROM these results it is evident, that this highly valued stone is merely carbonate of lime coloured by a little vegetable matter.

The third and last kind of snake-stone I have to describe was of a cylindrical form, slightly curved about an inch in length and in circumference about three quarters of an inch; it had a smooth shining surface, was dark bottle green, pretty hard and rather brittle, when broken it proved to be composed of concentric, thin layers; it had the odour of musk in a slight degree: it did not possess any absorbent power.

Before the blow-pipe it decrepitated, fell to pieces, blackened, took fire, burnt with a very red flame and emitted much smoke. The coal it left was voluminous; the ash this coal afforded when incimated was small in quantity, and consisted chiefly of carbonate and phosphare of lime.

THE nature of this stone I did not farther investigate. The preceding results satisfied me that it was a Bezoar which Sir ALEXANDER JOHN-STONE previously suspected.

It will naturally be asked, are these snake-stones deserving of the reputation which they have acquired among the natives; are their virtues real or imaginary? By putting the question in a different form it may be solved more easily. Is a calcined bone or a fragment of arbonate of lime, or a concretion formed in the intestines of an antilope an antidote against the posson of snakes? Every one acquainted with the animal economy and the essects, and the mode of operation of the posson of snakes will (I think) decidedly answer in the negative. The two kinds last described can have no physical or che-

mical effect whatever as local applications; and the first kind can have little effect even as an absorbent; were it indeed possessed of the strong-cs absorbent power, I am confident, its application would be useless, and worse than useless, as intersering with the employment of efficient means of cure.

ANOTHER question may be put.—Is it not curious that these stones is possessed of no real power should be so much consided in as they are, and if destitute of all virtue as an antidote, should be esteemed as an antidote, and not only by ignorant Indians, but even by many Europeans.—In reply it may be generally remarked, error is popular, quod mavult homo esse verum id facile credit: appearances are deceptive and correct conclusions difficultly drawn, not to mention the essess of superstition and its influence on the minds of Indians. To be more particular, it may be remarked farther, that I believe the persons who have used snake stones have (independent of other sources of mistake,) been deceived by applying them in many instances to the bite of snakes supposed to be, but not really venomous; and in other instances in attributing to the stones, the cure which was due to nature alone.

The majority of serpents supposed by the natives to be poisonous are harmless. Though I have been in Ceylon only a sew months, I have already seen and examined twelve different species of snakes: of these only one kind was believed by the natives to be harmless. Notwithstanding of the whole number, only three species proved to be poisonous. About a week ago a snake was brought me by a Modeliar. He called it a Mahihilla. Though dead, the man who carried it, was under great apprehensions of danger, and took care of himself by carrying it tied to the end of a long pole. The Modeliar excused the man's timidity, saying it was very venomous; in an hour (he afferted) the man who is bitten by it dies.—Yet on examination, I found

that this fnake had no fang-teeth or poison-bag, and of course was harmless: of the three poisonous kind, the bite of one I have ascertained, is never fatal even to small animals and much less to man. ferpent alluded to, is that called here the carawilla. Its poison acts in a peculiar manner, occasioning much swelling and pain in the part The swelling gradually abates: Difagreeable suppurating ulcers are a frequent consequence; but the recovery is spontaneous and certain. I may relate an instance in which a snake-stone gained much credit applied to the bite of a ferpent of this kind. The story was thus told me by a spectator. A native servant was biten in the leg by a serpent. A snake charmer was immediately sent for. He came speedily, yet before he arrived, the leg and thigh were much swollen. The charmer applied his fnake stone which was along time continued. In about three hours the pain which at first was excruciating had nearly ceased, and the swelling in about three hours more had subsided, and the man who was travelling on foot was able to pursue his journey, which I have no doubt he would have been able to have done just as soon, if no stone had been applied,

(coluber naja) and the Polonga (a species of coluber) is thought by most of the natives to be absolutely mortal, which is far from the truth. The effect of the bite depends on a variety of circumstances that people in general leave out of consideration. I have made a number of experiments with bo h kinds, and can speak from my own experience. The poison of these snakes is soon exhausted, when of course their bite is innocent. And though the poison be not exhausted in the majority of cases of the bite of the cobra di capello, and in many of the polonga, it is not sufficiently virulent to cause the death of any animal excepting such as are small and weak.

Or all errors practical errors are the worst; and to this class of errors. I flatter myself I have proved that the belief of snake-stones being antidote against the posson of snakes belongs. The sooner such a belief is exploded the better. Many alife in all probability has been facrificed to it, that might have been saved by efficient means of cure timely applied, and much human suffering und rgone, that might have been relieved, had real, instead of these imaginary remedies been employed.

ADDITIONAL OBSERVATIONS, BY THE SECRETARY.

THE experiments of Dr. Davy have satisfactorily established the nature of those substances termed snake-stones, and have sully corroborated the notions entertained of their composition and inessicacy; the conclusions that he has drawn however, were not unknown either in the east or west, and it may not be uninteresting to take a cursory view of the opinions which have been expressed of their nature and properties, by preceding writers in these kingdoms, as well as in Europe, as a supplement to Dr. Davy's analytical enquiries.

The modern introduction of the snake-stone to the attention of the philosophers of Europe, appears to have occurred in the latter part of the 17th century. In 1662 some specimens were brought from India by three Franciscan Friars, and deposited in the museum of the Grand Dake of Tuscany, where they were seen, and described by the naturalist Rédi; about the same time, some were sent from Java by Sir Philliperto Vernati, to Sir Robert Moray, for the repository of the Royal Society: they had also some short time before, been described in Thevenot's relations of divers considerable voyages, and they were again mentioned in Tavernier's Travels in the East Indies.

In all these cases an erroneous opinion was expressed of the origin of this stone; it was said to be found in the head of the Coluber Naja and other serpents, and was thence termed pietra del serpente cobra de cabelo; lapis serpentis cobra de cabelo dicti; pedra de cobra, pierre de serpent, and snake stone, and another kind was named from the place whence it was supposed to be brought, pedra del serpente di Mombazza, or lapis serpentis de Mombazza; the description of which given by Thevenor, is thus cited in the Philosophical Transactions of 1665.

"In the East Indies, and in the kingdom of Qamfy in Chine, there is found a stone in the head of a certain serpent (which they call by a name signifying hairy serpent) which heals the bitings of the same serpent, that else would kill in 24 hours. This stone is round, white in the middle, and about the edges, blue or greenish. Being applied to the wound it adheres to it of itself, and falls not off, but after it hath sucked the poison, when they wash it in milk, wherein it is lest awhile, till it return to its natural condition. It is a rare stone, for if it be put a second time upon the wound, and stick to it, 'tis a sign it had not sucked all the venom during its first application, but if it slick not, 'us a mark that all the poison was drawn out at first."

The account thus given of the origin of the snake stone, appears not to have received implicit credence; Tavernier considers it to be a medicinal compound, and Kempfer (Amænitat exot.) looks upon it as an artificial sabrication. Thevenor states particularly that the town of Pru was celebrated for its manufacture, and in the Philosophical Transactions for 1749-50, in a communication from Sir Hans Sloane, he states on the authority of Doctor Alexander Stuart, recently returned from the East Indies, that the snake stones "were not taken out of a scripent's head, but made of the bones of the small buffalo in the

"Indies, (by which their coaches are drawn instead of horses,) the bones being half calcined or charred by the dung of the same buffalo," the same is stated by PARR in his Medical Dictionary, in which the lapis colubrinus is said to be made of hartshorn, burnt to blackness, and afterwards polished, the whole coroborating the conclusion of Dr. Davy, that one species of the snake stone is nothing more than bone partially calcined.

THE notion that a gem or stone of great value and miraculous properties was formed in the head of a fnake, is one of confiderable antiquity and wide circulation, and both in its early introduction and subiequent revival is manifestly of Indian origin. Solinus in his chapter on Ethiopia states, that, "exciditur e cerebris draconum, dracontias "lapis," and he adds, usu ejus orientis Reges præcipue glorantur. quoting Sotacus or Emiznos an ancient Greek author who wrote Περι λιθων as having feen this extraordinary gem. Philostratus 25 cited by Salmasius is still more precise as to the locality of the sabic, and declares that the natives of India or Ivdos cut off the head of the ferpent in order to extract the stone contained in it: the same account of the origin of this stone occurs in Pliny, who mentions its being procured by the natives of India by decapitating the ferpent whilst asleep, and who also notices the medical application by the Scythians of another stone said to be found in the head of the viper, which is used as an antidote: (viperæ) dissecant quidem Scythæ inter aures, ad eximendum lapillum, quem aiunt ab eâ devorari territa.

THE gem of the claffical writers, and which according to them is not a stone at all, unless it be taken from the head of a living snake, is evidently the wonderful Carbuncle of the romance writers. It is probably also the same as the snake stone of modern travellers, although known to them only in its medicinal character: both are the

offspring of Indian fable, and we find accordingly in the Sanscrit poets frequent allusion to the stone in the head of the snake, and in the Characa and Sufruta two medical works of high authority and great reputed antiquity, the स्प्रमानाः Serpamani or fnake gem, is enumerated amongst the antidotes, and designated also by the synonime गरमशि Garamani or poison stone. The Mohammedan writers make similar mention of the fnake stone, which according to the author of the Akhtiyar Bedai is found in the head of the Asai or viper; the author of the Tohfet al Momenin calls it Hejar al Haiyah and describes the Haiyah as a fort of fnake; the latter calls it also Mar mohereh or fnake floure. and the former adds as another name Badzehr, or Bezoar, confidering it as the animal species of that celebrated alexipharmic, which appears in general to be the Inake Itone of the east, and which was one of the three kinds examined by Dr. Davy, as well as one of those described in the communication referred to above, made by Sir HANS SLOANE to the Prefident of the Royal Society.

The Bezoar according to our medical writers was unknown to the Greeks, and was first introduced to the knowledge of Europe, by the Arabic writers. There does not seem indeed to Leany mention of it in the works of Aristotle or of Pliny, though we have the authority of Ibni Teimiz of Hebatallan, a christian physician who lived at the court of the Abbasside Khalif Mistarki, about the middle of the 10th century, and the author of a voluminous medical work entitled Al Moghni, * for its being known to the Greeks, as he cites Aristotle as staining its being brought from Iniia and China. Another author also

This statement rests upon the authority of the author of the Tehfit at M menin. B'HERman a however as ribes the great work—entitled Al Moghni to Eur. Berran, and another, Moghni fel tit—to the son of Euri Talviz, or Said Bin Heratulan. They may both be right as Moghni in phing, the satisfier or contenter, forms part of the title of many works, especially on medicine and law.

EBN BEIT AR quotes the same writer for its dose, in his chapter on anti-dotes: this testimony, which is rather suspicious, and which may have proceeded from the desire of the authors to shelter themselves under a great name, would only add an additional sact to the many we already possess, evincing the possession by the Arabs of many classical works, especially on the sciences, which have not come down to later ages, and will leave Europe still indebted to the Arabs or Persians, for its acquaintance with the substances called Bezoars.

The name from which the modern appellation is derived, establishes the priority of knowledge in favour of the Persians, as Pázehr, Pádzehr, or Bádzehr, are Persian words—the author of the Jawáhir Náma explains the term, as signifying the repeller of poision, and Meninski's Etymology therefore is not without original support χ ;, L, padzehr vel. q. Pudizehr et χ ;, L Badzehr, compositum est explains Bezoar. It may therefore be termed properly the poision stone, which is equally the signification of its Arabic name, Hajar-ús Sem, and the name by which it is usually known of Zehr Mohereh.

OBIENTAL writers distinguish Bezoar into two classes, or mineral and animal: the mineral fort is procured, according to Abistotle says Ibni Telmiz, from India and China; according to Abu Hinduyan, from the mountain Zerawand in Cirman: it is perhaps the sossile Bezoar of Europe, a kind of stone resembling the animal Bezoar, being formed of concentric layers, and similar to it, externally, in size and shape.

THE other kind of Pád-zehr is the animal fort, called by the Arabs very accurately, Hejer at tis or goat stone; it being in sact a calculous concre-

justly stated by the author of the Tohfet al Momenin, who takes no notice of the sabulous generation of it by the successively congealed rheum slowing from the eyes of a fort of camel or deer supposed to seed upon snakes, as mentioned in the Khwás al Ehjár and other works: the Akhtíyárát Budái is singular in deriving the animal Bezvar from the head of a snake, although its presence in the porcupine, ape and ox is oticed in several works, agreeably to the information given by Tavernier, who says with great truth, J'ay eu la curiositè de me bien instruire de tout ce qui se peut scavoir du Bezvar: of both species of Bezvar, many varieties, classed according to the shades of colour, are enumerated by the original authorities.

It is foreign to the object of the present remarks, to notice the many wonderful properties ascribed by oriental writers to the Bezoar, or to advert to any, but its supposed alexipharmic power. In this respect, as well as in the method of its application, it answers to the accounts given by Theurnot and Kampfer of the virtues of the snake stone, and leaves no doubt of their general identity.

The only remaining conclusion resulting from Dr. Davy's enquiries, regards the inefficacy of these substances, be they what they may: the credulity that prevailed on this head, has not been confined to the natives of the East, nor even to those who took the oriental sables upon trust, for Tavernier, from information gathered on the spot, appears to be quite satisfied of their properties; and no less a personage, than the President of the College of Physicians, Doctor Bateman, informed Sir Hans Sloans "with great admiration that he had seen the great estates upon the bite of a viper of the snake stone, or serpent stone as it is called, before King Charles 2d, who was a great lover of such

"natural experiments." We know perfectly well now, what to think of fuch testimony, and the absolute inertness of these substances is indisputably established: in this respect indeed the preceding experiments, only corroborate the inference of Kampfer, "istis lapidibus "nihil esticacio inesse, nisi quam actuali frigiditate sua, vel absorbendo "præstant," and we have the authority of Fontana, for its being known from the experiments of those two great Italian naturalists, Redi and Valifnieri, that the snake stone has no essicacy in curing the bite of vipers.

VIII.

AN ACCOUNT OF VENOMOUS SEA SNAKES, ON THE COAST OF MADRAS.

E

DR. M'KENZIE,

COMMUNICATED BY COLONEL M'KENZIE.

Soon after the opening of the bar in the month of October 1815, reports were circulated at Madras, that a great shoal of sea snakes had entered the river, and that many natives in crossing it had been bitten and had died. These reports caused so serious an alarm among the natives, that they attracted the attention of the superintendent of the police, who on enquiry ascertained that three individuals after crossing the river had died, and their death had been occasioned (as was universally believed) by these snakes. In consequence of this information, a reward was offered for each sea snake caught on the condition of being carried to the police office.

Pandauls were erected opposite to the two principal fords on the river, where under my medical superintendence skilful natives provided with Eau-de-luce and other remedies were constantly stationed, and who were directed to afford immediate aid to those persons who might be unfortunately bitten; this little establishment was continued until the river had become nearly dry; during its existence sisteen persons (actually bitten) were carried to the Pandauls, all of them in a greater or less degree exhibiting those symptoms consequent upon the action of a powerful animal posson on the system; to all of them, the remedies prescribed were promptly administered, and with the happing

est effect. As two of these cases came under my own immediate ob. servation, I have detailed them below; from notes carefully taken on the spot, during the continuance of the symptoms, and the exhibition of the remedies for their relief. To these two cases I have added the progress and result of an experiment, farther corroborative of the dangerous character-of these unwelcome visitors.

In consequence of the reward offered by the police, from two to three hundred snakes were caught alive, and chiesly by fishermen who were either fearless or unconscious of any danger from them.

Among those caught, there appeared to be a considerable variety, but far the greater number were of the species Hydrus major and Hydrus gracilis, of both, feveral were very accurately examined by my friend Mr. RYDER of the Mint, and some well prepared and preserved spegimens have been sent by him to a gentleman in England.

FROM a comparison of these with the description given by Dostor SHAW in his excellent Zoology, there can be no doubt as to the character of the snakes which made their appearance in the Madras liver.

I SHALL in substance quote Dostor Shaw's characteristics. HYDRUS MAJOR.

H. Lividus, fasciis decurrentibus suscis, squamis hexagonis abrupte carinatis.

Its length is more than three feet, its colour pale or livid, marked throughout the whole length of the back by a feries of large transverse semi decurrent dusky bands: the tail banded more deeply or so as to show less of the ground colour, it is much strictured at the beginning or place of the vent, and then widens confiderably towards the tip, which is obtufely pointed; the length of the tail is about four inches

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and the scales which cover it are somewhat of a square form, and so disposed as to resemble in some degree those of a sish; they are all marked by an abrupt middle carina—the scales on the body are chiefly hexagonal, and are carinated in the same manner, those on the head large and angular: along the lower part of the abdomen runs a pretty strongly marked carina, the scales being not dilated into any appearance of scuts, but merely marked by a middle line of division on the very edge of the carina; the vent is surrounded by a row of large strong lengthened scales.

THE hydrus major is entirely a marine species, it is surnished on each side the upper jaw with a row of small teeth, one of which (two in those examined at Madras) is much larger than the rest, and on being examined is evidently tubular.

HYDRUS GRACILIS.

II. Corpore anterius gracillimo squamis ovatis lavibus, posterius crassiore squamis hexagonis abrupte truncatis.

LENGTH about two feet, head very small, and covered with large scales: neck and fore part of the body very stender and cylindric for the distance of about seven inches when it begins to enlarge, and staten into a carina on the upper part which is continued to the end of the tail. The stender part above mentioned is covered with ovate smooth scales, the remainder of the animal with hexagonal ones, each marked with an abrupt central carina. The tail is about an inch and three quarters long, slat, and obtusely acuminated but not so broad as the thickest part of the body.

THE body is banded all along from the head to the tail, with numerous, equidificant dark and somewhat obtufely pointed bands, reaching almost to the abdomen, which with the intermediate spaces is of a plea

brown colour; those on the cylindric part of the body are nearly annuli; the stricture or contraction at the vent is not so strongly marked as in the Hydrus major; to which in some particulars this species seems allied.

The head and mouth of the Hydrus gracilis examined at the Mintbeing very small, the existence of tubular sangs could not be satisfactoryly ascertained, but from the carinated scales added to its other characteristics, there can be but little doubt entertained of their existence.

CASE, I.

About three P. M. on the—of November, a native woman in crosfing near the land custom house was seen whilst stepping out of the water to shake off something which grasped her foot, and which to several people who were looking on appeared distinctly to be a water fnake, the woman after having advanced a few paces from the river fell down, and was carried to the Pandaul in a state of apparent infenfibility: on examining her feet, two small but distinct wounds were formed on the ankle of the right leg, her skin was cold, her face livid, she breathed with great difficulty and with an occasional hickup and her pulle at the temple or wrifts was scarcely to be felt: a ligature was immediately applied above the wound previously enlarged with a lancet, and to which a piece of the carbonate of ammonia well moistened with the pure nitric acid had been applied; thirty drops of the Eau-deluce in a glass of water were administered nearly at the same time that the other means were taken: in five minutes more a fimilar dose was poured down her throat; this last seemed rather to encrease the spasm at he cheft, but the pulle now was felt feebly, though diffinctly at the write—the third dofe was repeated in three minutes more, and upon swallowing it, the screamed and evidently breathed more freely.

TEN minutes had now elapsed since she had been carried to the Pandaul, and in about three minutes more a tea spoonful of the Eau-de-luce was given which almost immediately produced violent, nausea, and caused a prosuse perspiration to be thrown out over every part of her body. On putting a little salt into her mouth, she said it was not salt but sugar, the natives deemed this an infallible sign of still centinued danger.

Notwithstanding her improved fymptoms an additional tea spoonful of the Eau-de-luce was given, and a fresh application of the nitric acid was made to the wound from which (she said) she now felt no pain. From this period she continued to recover, and in about an hour after she had been carried to the *Pandaul*, she was entirely relieved: complaining, only of a numbness in the leg and thigh above the wound, which sensation continued for three or four days afterwards.

CASE II.

About half past eight A. M. Mahomed a lascar, was carried to the Pandaul, said to have been bitten by a snake, about the middle of the river: advancing a few paces, after having quitted the bank he sell down violently convulsed: when brought in, his breathing was laborious, his face livid, his skin cold and clammy, his pulse was distinctly selt at the temples, but it was seeble at the wrist, his urine and faces passed involuntarily from him, a quantity of soam and froth was ejected violently from between his closed teeth; with some difficulty, two small wounds were discovered on the outer edge of the less foot, which on being pressed bled a little, a tourniquette was instantly applied above the wound, which at the same instant was laid open to the extent of nearly an inch in this manner + and the carbonate of ammonia well soaked in the nitric acid applied to it—a tea spoonful of Eau-

de-luce in diluted brandy was with difficulty poured down his throat, which quantity was repeated every five minutes—after the third dose the spasms were relieved, his skin became warm, and he appeared to be sick at shomach, after the fourth dose, he retched violently, and brought up a small quantity of phlegm and a profuse perspiration was thrown out. I now considered his danger as much lessened; although he still continued insensible—the Eau-de-luce was continued and a fresh quantity of the alkali and acid was applied to the wound, in about 35 minutes after his admission, and after having taken seven doses of the Eau-de-luce, two of which were rejected, he was greatly relieved and spoke. On putting a little salt into his mouth he said it tasted sour, in about an hour afterwards he quitted the Pandaul—complaining only that his throat was burnt, and that he selt as if he had no less teg; this last sensation as in the former case continued for many days.

THIRTEEN others in the course of one month were carried into the Pandauls, and all of them were relieved by the same means promptly administered—the two cases detailed are however sufficient to prove the dangerous character of the sea snakes, which in such numbers entered the river, and I entertain the strongest conviction that had not immediate and powerful remedies been applied many of those bitten must have perished.

EXPERIMENT.

A LARGE healthy chicken was exposed to a Hydrus major nearly four seet long, which had been caught 12 hours, during which period it was kept in a vessel filled with fresh water—the chicken was made to press upon the head and body of the snake, but did not succeed in rousing it—upon which the Hydrus was taken out of the vessel and permitted to roll about in the open verandah in the presence of several people, the chicken was then presented to it, made to press upon its

head, which at length irritated the Hydrus which was seen to bite at the chickens foot—the bird was immediately withdrawn—the marks of the sangs were perceptable though not distinctly so: but in about 10 minutes from this period it appeared to droop, and to have a slight convulsive slutter in both wings, in three minutes more it was decidedly convulsed, and at the end of 17 minutes from the period of being bitten it suddenly dropped down quite dead.

REMARKS.

From the result of the experiment, and from a consideration of the fymptoms detailed in the two cases and corroborated in a greater or less degree by thir een others, there can (I apprehend) be no doubt entertained as to the dangerous character of the hydrus species, and of the powerful effects of their poison upon the human body. It may perhaps be prefumed from the entire recovery of fifteen persons bitten to whom the proper remedies were administered, that it might not have proved fatal, and that the poison was not so dangerous as that of many of our Indian land snakes: on this point I shall not venture to decide farther than to remark, that the symptoms detailed in Case 2d, followed as nearly after the bite, and were as alarming in their appearance as in the cases of those bitten by the cobra de capello; the most dangerous of our Indian snakes: this being so, there are no strong reasons for prefuming that the refults would not have been equally fatal, had the proper remedies not been promptly applied. My confidence in the volatile atkali as a powerful antidote when taken into the stomach had been long established, and in the concentrated and elegant form of the Eau-de-luce fully confirmed by the able detail of its effects, in his own case given in vol 11 of the Asiatic Transactions by my friend Doctor M'RAB of Chittagong.

THE application of the carbonate of ammonia and nitric acid to the wound flood recommended to me by its constant use amongst the natives in fimilar cases, and after the stings of scorpions and other poissonous insects.

To explain why falt was offered to the person bitten, it is proper to add that an universal belief prevails amongst the natives of this part of India, that falt tastes sweet to those who are under the influence of a powerful animal poison, and that when this morbid taste ceases, that the danger is abated or entirely over, and that all medicine may be fafely discontinued.

IX.

THE RUINS OF PRAMBANAN

IN JAVA.

By JOHN CRAWFURD, Esq.

I HAVE the pleasure to present the Asiatic Society with an account of the Hindu ruins of Prambanan on Java. A residence of several years in the vicinity of this place afforded me many opportunities of inspection and enquiry of which if I have availed myself with any skill, I may hope that my narrative may compensate by its accuracy for its deficiency in learning.

The principal ruins of Prambanan, * as the name is written and pronounced by the present inhabitants of the island, are situated about 10 English miles from Gugyacarta, the residence of the Sultan of Java, and about 30 from Suracarta the residence of the Susuhunan.

THE high road which runs in a direction nearly east and west, between these places, passes through the ruins.

By far the greater part of the ruins are in the district of Pajair and the rest in the district of Matavam where it joins the former. The country about Prambanan is a portion of an extensive valley, laying between the mountains of Rábabu and Márapi to the north, and an humbler range to the south called from its situation, near the south

^{*} As P. and B. are in most in guage and particularly in those of the indian Islands, mutually convertible into each other, and the middle B. seems inserted to obviate a biatus. Prambunga probably means the place of brahmins, agreeable to the mode of forming such nouns in Javanese.

coast Gunnuncidul or the southern-mountains. The most northerly of the ruins are not above two miles distant from the latter, and though many miles from the peak of Márapi, nearly on the base of that extensive mountain. From the more easterly of the ruins to the more westerly, the distance is three miles and a half, and from the ruins on the more southern range of hills to those farthest north not less than three miles, so that the whole of the remains may be estimated to occupy an area of ten or eleven square miles. Before offering any account of the temples I may shortly premise, that the whole of these buildings appear to me to have been dedicated to the religion of Buddha, blended with the worship of Siva, of the Linga and Yoni. This will render intelligible some remarks on the temples which it will be convenient, to intersperse with the description of them.

A rew of the ruins confilt of fingle temples, but the greater number of groups of a square figure composed of one or more rows of fmaller temples furrounding one or more great temples. of these groups that strikes the eye of a traveller is one lying within a few yards of the high way, and immediately to the north of the village of Prambanan. Here a confused mass of blocks of hewn stone, rubbish, rank vegetation, and rude. mounds presents itself. Tracing the remains of the wall, which furrounds this group, I found that the area occupied by it was a square of about 600 English seet to a fide. Running parallel with the remains of the wall are those of two rows of small temples at a few paces distant from each other. Most of these temples are nearly levelled with the ground, and none of them are perfect. They may be estimated to have been, when complete about 20 feet high: each feems to have contained a fright image, the pedestals of which are still remaining in several. This image I conjecture to have been Budden, from discovering it in parallel situations in. Affiliar groups and from the existence in the vicinity of a single muti-Tated flavor con ng the perceltais in the temples. In the centre of the figure now described are three temples lying parallel to each other, in direction north and fouth, and much larger than the exterior ones. That occupying the immediate centre, is conspicuous by its decorations and extent. The contents of this great temple, which has four entrances and as many fanes, appear to identify the whole group of buildings with the worship of Mahadeva. The northern fane contains an image of his S'acti in the character of Durga punishing Manés asura, the western, an image of GAN'ESA, their first born, and the southern an alto relief figure of the Gon himself, in the character of a devotee. The eastern fane is so thoroughly blocked up with stones, that there is no access to it, nor is it known what figure it contains. Judging however from the other images, and from fimilar buildings on other parts of the island, I would hazard a conjecture, that the BULL NANDI the Váhan of the God, is the image contained in this inaccessible portion. of the temple...

of veneration with the inhabitants of Java. In the ancient books of the Javanese both are designated by their proper Indian names, but the vulgar denominate the former Liman or the elephant God, and the latter Boke Lora Jungran, or "the virgin lady tall and thin." Barren women, men unfortunate in trade, or at play, persons in debt, and sick persons, continue to this day to propitiate the goddess Durga with offerings, and I have seldom visited Prambanan, that I did not find her statue smeared with persumed unguents or decked with slowers. This superstitious respectation of the Javanese, for the relics of their ancient worship, I discovered in one of my last visits to this place, was not

confined to the lower orders of the people, for His Highness the Susu-Hunan about a year ago when meditating, ambitious schemes of no common danger, made offerings to this same image of Durgá, perhaps, however, more particularly induced to propitiate a *Hindu* divinity on this occasion from the nature of the connection he has since been known to have formed.

In a northerly direction from this group, and about half a mile diftant from it, is the numerous group called (*) Chandi Sewa, or the thousand temples, so denominated, not from their precise number, but in compliance with an idiom of the Javanese language which applies this numeral in a loose way to any large affemblage of objects crouded together, of which there is another example in the southern ranger of mountains opposite, which in one situation take from their appearance the name of Gunnun Sewa or thousand hills.

The group of Chandi Siwa is a square building of a similar character with the last, but in some respects in a much better state of preservation. The northern and southern sides of the square measure 600 English seet, and the eastern and western 550.

This large group confists of four rows of small pyramidal buildings, having one great temple in the centre. The actual number of the temples is no less than 213; the outer row containing 78 the second 66, the third which is separated by a considerable interval from the two first 44, and the sourch 28. Between this last and the great central temple, there are the remains of a wide trench. The great central temple, which is probably not less than 60 seet high that teen despoiled of

^{*} Chandi means a spire, not a temple for which the word is Sangar, but the reser is in meadern language always applied to Hinds rules.

all its images, and in one only of the 212 smaller temples, is there a figure remaining. This solitary figure is a fine statue of Buddha, sitting crosslegged in the usual manner and thus measuring 3½ seet high and 4½ round the waist, excluding the arms. Close by some of the other small temples a number of mutilated figures of Buddha are still found, the pedestals corresponding to which still exist, in the temp le themselves, and I have little doubt, but the whole of the smaller temples were shrines of Buddha. Most of these were occupied seemingly by one image only, but others as may be suspected from the niches in the walls contained one or more small figures, besides the greater one in the body of the temple.

THE principal objects of worship were certainly in the great temple, and from the analogy of the other buildings, I have little doubt, but MAHADEVA or his consort, and progeny in one character or another are the chief objects of worship.

The shape of the smaller temples is peculiarly worthy of observation. From the soundation to the lintels of the doors, they are of a square form, they then assume a pyramidal, but round shape, and are here decorated around, by small sigures resembling Lingas, while a larger Linga surmounts the whole building forming the apex of the temple. This structure was tolerably perfect in one or two of the temples only, but the materials of a similar architecture, might in general be traced in the ruins of the rest. This indeed in a sew words may be reckoned a description of the exterior of all the temples of Prambanan.

The group of the thousand temples like all the others was fur-

grand square there are sour distinct gates or entrances, one on each side of the square, and sacing the cardinal points of the compass. At each of these entrances, are two gigantic statues, seemingly in the characters of warders. These are in the posture of kneeling on one knee, and in this attitude are in heighth, exclusive of the pedestals, which are a foot and a half high, seven seet and eight inches, and measure round the body including the arms 11 seet. The Javanese term all those figures, which are frequent throughout the Island, Gopála, and I had hence at first imagined them to be representations of Crishn's, of whom this is one of the titles, but their occupations, the absence of a crown or umbrella, or other mark of royalty, render the conjecture inadmissible, and the perpetual presence of the snake is more probably intended to characterise the religion of Siva.

Quitting the "thousand temples" and returning again in a southerly direction we meet a single unconnected temple which the Januarese call, for I know not what reason, Chandi Asak, or the temple of the dog. It is a shapeless ruin displaying nothing remarkable, the top is open and displays to the observer the inside of the building, destitute of image or sculptures: proceeding still farther in the same direction, but not in all above 300 yards from the "thousand temples", we come to a small group, which contains about 15 temples including one large central one. These are of the same pyramidal form, and differ only, in being less ornamented with sculptures. The entrance into this is by a single gate to the castern side, guarded by two warders of the same character with those already described, but of inserior size. All the temples of this group, have been pillaged of their images, but a single mutilated sigure of Buddha, close by, seemed to indicate what the contents of the smaller temples had been.

The central temple has no dess than 12 empty niches of various sizes, but the principal figure of this building was probably a figure in high relief, on a large block of black stone, found lying near the front of the temple. I am at a loss to point out what Indian divinity is intended to be represented by it, as the usual emblems of the Hindu Gods are not discoverable on it. About a mile and a half to the eastward of the thousand temples and close to the village of Pluosan, from which they take their modern name, I discovered in the month of April last, several groups of temples which had hitherto escaped the observation of our countrymen on Java, and indeed I believe of all Europeans. The natives display an entire apathy on all subjects of this nature and the discovery of these ruins on the present occasion was purely accidental. The more northern group of the temples of Pluosan is an oblong square measuring 700 feet on the east and west sides, and 300 to the north and south. The smaller temples have been all levelled to the ground in this square, and in entering it, one perceives in their room a mass of ruins, and rubbish appearing here and there, above the long fank grafs. The square appears originally to have contained three diffinct fets of temples, each having a large centrical one, furrounded by a row of smaller ones. The middle and more southerly of the central temples, are still partly standing, though in a state of ruin. The middle temple contains two fanes, one of which however, is blocked up with masses of stone and inaccessible. The other contains on the same platform or shelf, two fine male statues in a sitting posture, side by side, and from the similarity of the features, and whole character, evidently intended to represent the same divinity, which from the crescent behind one of them, may be pronounced to be MAHA. DÉVA.

Or the more southern temple the two sanes are still entire, and contain each a pair of sigures, much resembling those in the middle temple, though destitute of any of the more usual emblems of the *Hindu* divinities. I have little doubt however, but they are representations of Siva to whom it is probable the whole group is dedicated.

THE interior of these two temples differs in a remarkable degree, from all those which I have examined in other situations by the richness and profusion of the decorations. The principal figures are those of persons of rank in an attitude of devotion. Some are sitting and others flanding, but all addressing their devotions to the images before. described. The greater number are accompanied by figures of flaves. or fervants holding umbrellas. The fmaller temples as already. mentioned, are all in complete ruin, but the images which they contained, still exist, and several of them are nearly perfect, all, those surrounding the two central temples already described, are: images of Buddha in a fitting posture, the right side of the bosom bare, the hands variously disposed, sometimes resting on the knees, sometimes as if demonstrating or offering instruction, the features are elevated, the expression of the countenance placid, the hair short and curled, less resembling nature than the effect of art, and in my judgment having no likeness to the woolly hair of the African, no more than the features, to the flat nose, thick lips, and other characteristic marks of the negro. countenance.

THE group of temples in the northern extremity of the great inscholure is in a thorough flate of dilapidation, including the central temple, yet it is remarkable that most of the sigures still remain, and many of them are entire; a fact, which seems to prove that religious fanaticism had little share in the destruction of these temples. Among the images

remaining in this particular part of the building; the most numerous are statues of Budder, and there are at least ten or twelve of the male divinity, images of which both in brass and stone, are exceedingly frequent on Java, but I cannot take upon me to specify its name or identify it with any of the Gods of Hindu mythology.

To the present group of buildings there are two entrances, both to the western side, and each guarded by a pair of the gigantic warders already described. About midway between the gates I discovered a slab of black stone with an inscription in the Deva Nagari character, much essaced and I fear illegible, except in one or two places. The stone is at least a foot thick, and as it bears no mark of the application of blows it seems somewhat dissicult; to account for its being broken as it is, unless we suppose that it was placed in an elevated situation and fractured in its fall. The temples of this group like the rest seems to have been surmounted by a figure like the Linga, and several mutilated ones, were discovered among the ruins.

Quitting this latter group, and proceeding in a foutherly direction about 150 yards, we meet with another group called Chandi Caputren or the feraglio, by the modern Javanese, from its containing semale images only. (*) There is nothing of the history of these temples to be gathered from the modern names imposed upon them, which imply some supposed use of the building, with a whimsical reference to their present domestic habits, wholly foreign to the real object of these structures. The group of sisteen temples already mentioned, is for example termed Lombon or the granary from its supposed relation in this ense to the Thousand temples near it, and there is a small temple, I re-

[.] A Derivative according to the forms of Javanese Grammar from Purez, a Princess,

member in the vicinity of the great temple of Boro Budor in the district of Cadu, which is termed from a supposed whimsical relation to the latter, Dapor or the kitchen. Chandi Caputren is an oblong square, the north and south faces of which measure 300 feet, and the east and west 200. In this group there is no temple standing, but the soundation of each is distinctly visible, and the enumeration of the whole proves, that they amounted to 32, appearing to have been all of equal size, for this group is remarkable, for containing no great central temple, and no statue of Buddha: each temple seems to have contained a single statue of a semale deity which I can only conjecture represents some mild form of the confort of Siva.

The fite of the temples of Prembanan is abundantly supplied with fine water, so much desired by the Hindus, and so necessary to the performance of their ritual. Besides two rivers of the purest water, there is between the villages of Prambanan and Planfan a small tank, evidently an appendage of the temples. This little piece of water, is a square of about 200 seet to a side. The ground around it is elevated, and there is every appearance of its being an artissicial excavation. The whole tank is covered with the blue Lotus, the slower of which is so conspicuous an ornament of the sculptures on the temples.

The Lotus though a native of Java, is generally propagated in the first instances by art, after which it perpetuates itself, so that we may hazard a conjecture, that the plants which now cover this little sheet of water, are from the original stock planted by the first founders of the semples. (*)

^{*} The Javanese language with its usual copiousness has no less than 10 names, indigenous or foreign for the Lotus, among which may be enumerated the following, viz. Tunjun Sarcja, Pudna, Canala, Cumuda, Trati, Sarasidya and Canagara.

The utmost limits of the ruins of Prambanan to the eastward, are about two miles from the village of Prambanan, and here in the midst of the rice fields the site of an ancient temple is marked by a few scattered bricks, which constituted a part of the foundation, but more distinctly by two large and two small statues of the usual warders. These relices are all that remain of this portion of the tempels, but from them it may be safely inferred, that this was a group similar in character to those already described.

PROCEEDING from these in a south west direction, we come to the village of Cabon Dalam (*) which is not above half a mile distant from that of Prambanan, and close to the soot of the southern range of mountains, near to the village of Cabon Dalam are the ruins of a group of temples, not apparently differing essentially from the others.

The central temple alone is standing, all the smaller ones being in ruins, and the materials employed in the construction of the rude dykes and enclosures of the neighbouring peasantry. The temple has been plundered of its images whatever they were, and nothing remains to determine to what deity the building was consecrated. The entrance to the group is by the western side, where there are two warders, similar to those already described, one of them broken and sunk in the ground. It was at this temple that my respected friend Colonel Mackenzie, discovered a slab of dark coloured stone with a Deva Nagari inscription, similar in appearance to that which I sound at Pluosan, but with the inscription far more perfect.

Nor far from these buildings I found myself about sour years ago, a block of the black stone, which is the usual material of the buildings,

^{*} The Royal Garden.

con which was an inscription in the ancient Javanese writing, which is a round character differing entirely in appearance from the Deva Nagari, though both alphabets be formed on the same principles. This block of stone from the manner in which it was sashioned, had evidently constituted a part of the materials of the temples. I may here remark as a fact, not foreign to the history of the temples, that Prambanare is the only place on Java where any inscription in the Deva Nagari is found, whereas inscriptions in the ancient Javanese character are frequently met with in many parts of the island. The discovery of both in the same situation is also a fact worth attending to, and may be adduced in proof of the hypothesis, to be asserwards mentioned in discussing the history of the temples.

In a westerly direction from the village of Cabon Dalam, and just behind that of Prambanan we discover very extensive ruins, but no temples standing, these ruins extend to the west as far as the banks of the Umpah (*) a clear and rapid stream which runs in a south west course, till it empties itself into the sea nearly opposite to Gugyacarta. To the fouth the ruins extend nearly to the bottom of the range of hills. This ground is alledged by the natives to have been the fite of a town or city and certainly has that appearance. Here the walls of a great square enclosure are still to be traced, particularly to the north and west sides. By measuring these, they are discovered to have been-000 feet to a fide. The appearance of the square, is that of a modern Craton, and tradition relates, that it contained the King's palace, but of this there is no vestige; towards the eastern side of the enclosure, are however to be found a number of images of a very interesting and determinate character. The ruins of the temples in which these were contained, form as at Cábon Dalam, the materials of the rude dykes

^{*} Unipul, means pedenal or stand, possibly from its washing the foundations of a number of the temples and other buildings,

which separate the neighbouring fields and gardens. Among the most remarkable of the figures here discovered, may be mentioned a reprefentation of Surya, with his feven headed horse; the driver Arun does not want the legs, as he is more commonly represented. A figure of Mahadeva (*) more diffinctly marked than usual with images of this God on Java, a scull in his crown, the Pása in one of his four hands, and a crescent at the back of the image. Another figure of the same God, four handed and not less distinctly marked by the known attributes, of this divinity, for behind the image there is a crescent, and in its crown a garland of sculls: several figures of Gan'es'a, one of them displaying the God, shaded by a hooded make, the only instance I can recollect on the illand of this image so characterized; and here are allo several ordinary figures of Buddina. But the most remarkable relics of this place, are three erest but mutilated statues of a male divinity, which I have no where elfe observed. Each is accompanied by its Váhana. The first having the Bull Nandi, is no doubt Sive, and I should have as little doubt, but the other two, whose Váhan is Garuda, are Vifinu, but close to all these are as many corresponding Yonis, which on being measured are discovered to fit the lower parts of the images, which therefore there is no doubt, were the corresponding Linguis. Notwithstanding the appearance of Garuda, therefore it seems pretty certain, that the temples of this portion of the ruins also were like the rest, dedicated to the worship of Mahadeva, of the Linga and Yone, coupled with the doctrines of BUDDHA.

Ascending the range of foutherly hills so frequently mentioned, and in a direction nearly due south from the relics just described, we find not above a few hundred yards from the ragged brink of the hills, the remains termed by the Javanese, the Craten or royal residence of

Neither Mana Dava nor his Succi, are ever to my knowledge found on Java, with The whird with forchead, as they so frequently are represented in India.

Boco. (*) The real figure of this ruin, which appears from the rankness of the vegetation under common circumstances, a mass of inextricable confusion, was distinctly ascertained by burning and destroying the grass and trees. It proved to be a square terrace constructed of huge blocks of hewn stone, measuring 68 feet to a side, and being four feet high. This terrace is furrounded at the distance of 14 feet, by a wall ascertained from a small portion of it, yet nearly persect, to have been 11 feet high. In this there are four doors, which I found by a mariner's compass to face the cardinal points: I may here observe, that as this appears to have been an object aimed at, throughout the whole of the buildings, it would be a curious point to determine with what degree of precision the object has been attained, as from this, the skill of the artists and the nature of the instruments which they employed might be alcertained. On the top of the terrace in two fituations, are seen some lose blocks of stone which appear to have constituted the elevated foundation of the sheds, which the Javanese I believe in imitation of the Hindus, term Pandapa or Mandapa, it is in such situations as these, that the modern princes take their seat on public occasions, and to judge from this as well as from the refemblance of the terrace itself, to those of a modern palace called the Sitingil, (†) I have no hesitation in assenting to the common tradition that the present ruin was really a palace. Dr. TYTLER who accompanied me in one of my last excursions to Prambanan, discovered in the targest of the two pillars of stone on the terrace, a fragment of a slab of stone on which was a Deva Nagari inscription, and a little way to the fouth of the building a mutilated stone figure, which I imagine to represent Mahá Déva destroying Tripurasuru. The inscription, the image, the nature of the materials and the character of the architecture, seem distinctly to identify these buildings with the ruins on the plain

[·] C. alon, is a derivative from RATO, a king or sovereign prince.

^{4.} Sitingil literally high ground or laud.

QUITTING the ruined palace and proceeding about half a mile in an easterly direction, we discovered two artificial excavations in the rocks, the largest of which is 14 feet long and 10 broad, having a bench towards the back part to fit or recline on; they are not above three feet high; between the caves is a small tank about 6 feet deep like the caves cut in the rocks. I have no doubt that these excavations, constituted the retreat of holy devotees, who fought a reputation by the performance of those austrities believed so efficacious; according to the religious system of the Hindus. After leaving the caves and going eastward about two miles as far as I could conjecture, amidst the mazes of a difficult forest, we came to a folitary temple or rather the ruin of one. This the Javanese call Chandi Baron a term of which I never could obtain a fatisfactory explanation. From the nature of the materials, and judging from the little that yet remains standing of the fabric itself, we may plainly discern that this temple is of the same character, with those of the plain. Since I visited it, I have been told that a statue of GANÉ'A has been dug up from the ruins. Such a situation as that occupied by the ruins now described, is one that never would be chosen by the present race of inhabitants, whose interests confine them to the plain and all the modern feats of Javanese government are in the latter situation. The builders of Prambanan must therefore have been actuated by different motives, and these motives are discovered by a reference to the Indian precept, which directs a Hindu prince to choose the fastnesses of the mountains for the seat of his government.

RAJA BACA stated by tradition to be the builder of Prambanan is wholly unknown in the histories of Java, but by name, and by the single circumstance of his being stated to have been deseated by a Javanese prince of the name of BANDUN.

Such are the whole of the ruins situated in the district of Pajan. The river Umpah divides this last district from Mataram, and on its western bank is the village of Bogam close to the road side, near which are seen sour gigantic statues differing from any yet mentioned.

The following is a brief description of these statues. The statue is string cross legged, and thus measures six seet high, and seven seet three inches across the breast including the arms. The sigure has an elevated crown, the sacerdoial cords, armlets, and a breast piece in the usual manner, but it wants as far as I can ascertain any distinguishing attribute of an Indian divinity. These sigures are in a superior style of sculpture. In the village of Boyant I sound a well sculptured Your which was used by the peasants as a block for husking rice.

As the traveller palles on to the town of Ayugacarta, the road is croffed about three quarters of a mile from Prambanan by a second stream called Cali Banin, or the clear river, an epithet so universally applicable to all the rivers in the interior of Java, that it is not easy to guess why it should be particularly applied to one. Not far from the western hank of this little stream, and within a dozen yards of the south side of the high road, there is a single temple which like all those yet undescribed takes its name from the river near it. This is upon the whole the most highly sinished, the most perfect, and in some respects the most interesting, of the ruins of Prambanan, and therefore I shall be more particular in my description of it. The temple is of a pyramidal shape, and differs chiefly in its greater size and the superior style of the decorations from the other temples.

THE whole building rests upon an artificial and elevated foundation, which judging from similar ones that have been traced, is probably of

brick, on this foundation there is a terrace of hewn stone, five and a half feet high. The conical part of the building is reduced to a shapeless mass, and the lower part only which is about 40 feet. is entire. This contains two great fanes to the east and west, and two small chambers to the north and south.

The exteriour of these compartments measures, the east and west, each 43 English seet wide, and the north and south, each 26 seet. Lying between these sour faces of the building, are sour angular double sided projections facing the intermediate points of the compass, thus giving to the whole building 12 faces of various dimensions.

THE en rance to the principal fane is to the east, by a flight of seven steps to the terrace from which you enter the body of the temple through a porch: directly fronting you, there is the remains of what has the appearance of a handsome altar piece, over which there is a niche, which seems to have been occupied by the chief object of worship when the temple was entire: within the porch, and on each side as you enter there are two niches for full length figures, but every image has been removed from the interior of the temple. The western fide differs from the eastern in the smaller fize of the chamber, to which there is no access by a porch, and it is in a state of much dilapidation. The entrance into the northern and fouthern chambers is through a mean door, and directly by a flight of steps of the fame hewn stone as the rest of the building. These are dark prison like apartments, and have by a minute aperture a communication with the great eastern fane. They had each contained an image, the pedestals of which are still standing. In various parts of the outfide of the building, no less than 12 great niches may be counted. At the entablature and cornicing, which terminate the square shaped portion of the

building, a number of smaller niches are to be seen all round this spart of the building, in two of which we discovered that images of Buddha in a sitting posture still remained, and mutilated figures and fragments of others were found scattered through the ruins round the temple, so that the whole of the empty nickes of that part of the building were in all likelihood similarly occupied.

MMMEDIATELY above the figures of Buddha where the temple begins to assume a conical shape, several figures, apparently of the Linga; are still standing, and a great many more both whole and mutilated are found scattered among the ruine. In inspecting the exterior of the remple, we discover the eastern and southern sides, the latter in particular, in a much superior state of preservation to the northern and western, which is readily accounted for, when we advert to the circumstance of the latter being exposed without-protection to the storms and rains of the western leafon, while the former are protected by the range of hills, even from the milder influence of the eastern feafon. In the easterly and foutherly fides of the building, the structure is indeed in a state of freshness, not to be seen throughout any other part of the ruins of Prambanan, displaying to great advantage the minuteness, and I may add the persection of the workmanship. Here is to be still discovered, what has long ago been effaced in the rest of the temples, a fine coating of mortar which covered the buildings, and gave the last finish to the labours of the artist. The plaster is about the eighth part of an inch thick, and adheres to the smooth stone with wonderful tenacity, a fatisfactory proof of the excellence of the composition, and the skill of the builder. Nothing can be more different than the mortar at present in use, which is both ill-concocted and unskilfully applied, yet notwithstanding the excellence of the former, when I confider the manner and fituation in which it is applied, that it has difappeared where exposed to the inclemency of the weather, and been

preserved only under savorable circumstances, I must look upon this as one proof in savorof the opinion to be afterwards offered; that the temples of Pranhanan are not of a very remote antiquity: but rather comparatively modern structures.

A raw hundred yards to the west of the temples now described, are the remains of a group similar in character to all those already described. The mere foundations however, only remain, and even these have been very recently disturbed for the sew bricks they contained, and which were to be traced in the piers of a bridge close by. The pedestals of a number of a very large status are still among the ruins, and sour huge warders have by their size escaped the general destruction. These it may be remarked appear as double centinels to one entrance on the south side of the ruin.

WE lee indeed from a retrospect of the lituation of the warders, throughout the ruins, that there is no one established mode of disposing of them, and that the entrance to the temples may be towards any one, or all four of the cardinal points of the compais. Here the entrance is to the fouth, at Placfan there are two entrances to the west, in the farthest east of the temples, the approach is to the east, and at the "thousand temples" there is one at each of the four quarters. Nearly opposite to these ruins and to the north side of the high food is a temple differing entirely in shape from all the rest, but from the character of the architecture, and the nature of the sculptures and decorations, evidently connected with the same religious worship, and constructed by the same people as all the others. It has something of the appearance of a long barn, and confifts of two stories with an arch-Within it is divided into three chambers, the largest in the centre, and this communicating with the two smaller ones at the ends From the regular fets of corresponding apertures in the opposite walk.

there is no doubt, but the building when complete had an upper floor, and we may conjecture from the ablence of stone beams, or any relic or fragments of them, that this portion of the building was of wood.

In the walls in all directions there are many niches, no doubt as in the other ruins intended for the reception of images, from which circumftance, as well as the costly and luxuriant decorations on the exterior walls, there can be little hefitation in concluding that this building was a place of religious worship, and not as some have conjectured a dwelling house.

There is as already mentioned a profusion of sculptures on the exterior walls, which as in the other buildings, consist of sull length figures male and semale in relief, slowers and other ornaments, of which it is unnecessary now to offer any account as they will be included in the general description of the prevailing decorations of the temples to be afterwards given. Such is a brief document of the principal remains at Prambanan: the extensive and sertile valley in which they lie, contains a number of inferior relics connected with the same worship, which it would be too tedious to enumerate, and I have therefore circumscribed my subject within the narrowest limits.

This particular part of the island has justly been a favourite seat of Hinduism, and among the modern names of places we can still trace, as in many other parts of the island, the classic names of Indian story. I shall give but one example. The town which the Dutch have corrupted into Dyeyocarta is the indian Ayodya, the country of RAMA CHANDRA: the place before it became in the year 1761, the residence of the successful rebel Mancu Buni, was called Ayugya (a corruption of Ayodya originating in the peculiar enunciation of the Javanese) which he changed into the compound Ayugyacarta, written from the impersession of the

modern alphabet which wants initial vowels, Nuyugyacarta: it is fingular to trace the corruption which words are doomed to undergo; the Sanscrit word Ayudya becomes in English Oude, in Javanese Nayugya, and in Dutch still more barbarously Djoyu. The temples of Prambanan are built of a hard dark and heavy species of basalt called by mineralogists trap. This I am told by Doctor Horserield is the chief component part of the mountains of fava. In the foundations and coarfer parts of the buildings an inferior material, a kind of white foft fand stone in various degrees of aggregation is to be found. The black hard stone is usually hewn into square blocks of various fizes. The respective furface of the stones which he on each other in the building, have grooves and projections adapted to each other; they are regularly arranged in the building in such a manner as to ensure the greatest strength and folidity in the structure, and no mortar is any where had recourse to as a cement. With materials of such excellence the construction of the temples of Prambanan, cannot be contemplated as a task of very extraordinary difficulty, for there is neither boldness nor grandeur in the design. There is nothing here upon a great scale, nothing but what feems within the reach of the most obvious mechanical contrivance. the most ordinary efforts of common ingenuity. What we are chiefly struck with is the minute laboriousness of the execution. Its success is also calculated to excite our admiration, though no doubt the effect is hightened by the comparison which we are apt to make between these ruins, and the rude effects of the modern art of the Javanese by which we are furrounded.

Upon the whole there is neither grandeur nor sublimity in the temples of Prambanan. The want of pillars conveys a disagreeable impression of heaviness and inclegance; the buildings are themselves too.

called fo, is to be discovered on all the most perfect Hindu temples on simall, the entrances are mean, and the interior conveys more of the gloom of a vault or prilon, than of the awe which ought to attach to a place of worship. For the place they are in, they are indeed wonderful structures, but one must be a Hindu to view them with any thing like enthusiasm. The sculptures and decorations of the temples are endless, but some are so predominant and characteristic as to descrive particular notice: one remark respecting all of them may be premised, that they must have been executed after the erection of the walls, the only obvious and practicable means, indeed of delineating figures and groups of such extent on a variety of adifferent stones. The first part the sculptures of the temples, which I shall mention are the human figures which are so often delineated in relief on the walls. These are sometimes male and sometimes female, and are executed with considerable Ikill, the artist often succeeding in conveying to the figures even a portion of ease and grace. These sculptures are I think universally destitute of the characteristic emblems of the Hindu Gods. They are as invariably without armour of any kind. "Neither their counrenances nor attitudes portray any remarkable aftivity of mind or body. Their, mild but passive forms not destitute of some grace would seem rather emblematical of that benevolence and tender sheartedness so vaunted in the doctrines of Budder, but of which so little is discoverable in the conduct of the modern followers of this worthip, if we form our conclusions from the character of the people of Ava and Siam or of the inhabitants of Ceylon, all of them probably the most remarkable for cruelty of any people of Asia.; The next decoration of the temples which I shall mention is a monstrous face without a lower jaw, found in the most conspicuous part of the temples, particularly over the key stones of the arches, and towards the angular projections of the buildings. The same ornament if indeed it can be

Realled To, is to be discovered on all the most perfect Hindu temples on the island, and is particularly frequent on the great temple at Boro Bodor. It is remarkable that the present race of Javanese, particularly those of the eastern end of the island where Hindussia is known to have flourished most, before its extinction, wear this monstrous face on their crisses. It is still more frequent with the Hindus of Bali and Lombock, who are worshippers of Siva: it is generally a moveable piece of gold fixed to the upper part of the scabbard on which the figure is embossed, and which differs in no manner from those delineated on the temples. The ambassadors of the Raja of Lomboc informed me, that the sace was a representation of Siva. I may remark that I found it delineated on one of the finest figures of the Voni at Prambinan, and its being discovered in a situation so decidedly identified with the worship of Mahánéva, may be adduced in consirmation of the opinion that it is intended to represent this God.

The most frequent ornament on the buildings is the Lotos. It is indeed almost universal on all the Hindu relies on the island. The ordinary figures on the outer side of the walls of the temples are never without a plant of it, and even the deities themselves, of all descriptions are generally sculptured with it. In the statues whether of brass or stone, found throughout the island, the pedestal very usually consists of the expanded calix of a Lotos, and the semale sigures in particular are perpetually attended by it. I suppose the Lotos to be here an emblem of Parwati who as well as Sri I find, has the epithet of Parmi in the nomenclature of the gods. This I inser however, only from the supposition already so often made of their temples being peculiarly dedicated to the worship of Siva. This may probably be considered as in some degree corroborated by the circumstance of the calix of a Lotos, being frequently substituted for the Yori.

Small figures in brass and stone with the Chanc and Lotes are very frequent on Java, which I should have concluded to have been Lacshmi, but as Vishnu himself, or his Avatars are so seldom met with, and as I have I think never seen the Chacka accompanying any image whatever, I must rather consider figures so decorated, as forms of the consort of Siva. The prevalence of vegetable decorations throughout the temples of Prambanan, cannot but attract notice. This I think may be fairly ascribed, to the principles of the sollowers of Buddah, who profess to abhor the spilling of blood. It would be endless to recount the varieties of these the greater number however, seem rather the productions of imagination, than of nature.

The outer sides of the walls consist usually of large compartments, sub-divided by sculptured pilastars: these are generally surrounded by borders of slowers, or fanciful ornaments, while the interior is occupied by figures of trees and plants, of animals, or of both. A bird of the parrot-kind appearing in the folds of a session of slowers, is a very common border, both in the ruins of Prambunan, and Boro Bodor.

Animals are not frequent on the ruins of Prambanan, but they do occur fometimes: the most usual are the lion, and the elephant, animals that are not natives of Java. It may be offered indeed as a general remark, that the animals and plants, as well as the human figures delineated, are all of them foreign to the island. Groups or historical representations, which abound so much at Boro Bodor, are seldom to be seen at Prambanan. I can state but one exception, which is a representation of the warlike apes of Ráma, upon some loose stones which cannot at present, be traced to the temples to which they originally belonged.

The overhour the whole of the buildings, there is one general observation, which may be made upon them, viz. that they are distinguished by a commendable decency, and among the great variety of representations which is found I should be at a loss to point out a single object that could give offence to the most fastidious delicacy. This is the more remakable, when we advert to the nature of the religion to which these temples are dedicated, and contrast them in this respect with the gross indecencies, which so frequently disgrace the temples of Hinaustan. After this sketch of the temples and their decorations, I shall make a sew observation on their æra, on the nature of the agency by which they have been brought to their present state of disapidation, on the nature and character of the worship, to which they appear to have been dedicated, and lastly offer some conjectures respecting the sounders of these remarkable structures.

I have already hinted that the temples of Prambanan, are not of a very remote antiquity, and accordingly in the memorial verses, as Sir William Jones, calls them, in which the chronology of the Javanese, as well as of the Hindus is preserved, the date of the oldest of the temples, those to the east of the river Umpah, goes no further back than 1188 of Salivana or Saca, as it is called in Java and Bali, and the other temples, those to the west of that river, are by thirty years, more modern. This traditional date, for it can hardly be confidered as much better, is however corroborated, in a remarkable degree, by the approximation to it which is discovered in all the monuments situated in the same part of the island; none of these go farther back than the beginning of the 12th century of Salivana; and none of the real hindu temples which bear the mark of an indian origin later than the middle of the 13th: the whole reign of genuine Hindussim, as well as can be ascertained from such dates, is consined

in the central districts, to a period of about 143 years. On a brass cast of Buddha, found not many miles from the ruins of Prambanan, there is I am told inscribed in the Deva-Nager character, the precise year, alleged to be that of the building of the oldest of the temples of Prambanan, or 1188: on two of the astronomical brass cups so frequently met with, and which were brought from the district of Pachitan, there are inscribed in plain figures in the ancient Javanese character the years of Salivana 1241 and 1246. The zera ascribed to the building of the temple of Boro Rodor, which is in a far higher state of preservation, than those of Prambanan, is 72 years more recent than the oldest of the latter. From all, these said the internal evidence afforded by the state of the ruins themselves, I conclude that the zera alleged for the building of the temples of Prambanan is not far from the truth or at all events, is exceedingly probable. It may here be remarked, that while the establishment of Hinduism, cannot be traced farther back than the beginning of the 12th century of Salivina in the centre of the island, there are several monuments in the castern end which provests exillence there at least 400 years carker.

The dilapidation which is discoverable in the temples of Frambanan, is soon traced to its true causes, by a careful consideration of the buildings themselves, an attention to the physical circumstances of the country, and the character of the population. The chief cause of destruction, is I think, the luxuriance of vegetation peculiar to the climate. The solidity of the structure, however admirable, is little calculated to resist this species of depredation: the tendrils of a variety of creepers infinuate themselves into the minutest chinks of the buildings, and soon growing into trees of 8 and 10 inches in diameter, their destructive effects become quite irresistible, in structures neither protected by mortar, nor bound by bars of metal, which might have protacted their fall. The progress of this species of dilapidation, is dis-

coverable throughout the whole of the buildings.

THE next most powerful causes of dilapidations, are the earth-quakes, so frequent in these volcanic regions, under which may be comprised the concussions, from the active state of volcanos, the crater of one of which is not perhaps 15 miles in a direct line from the buildings, and the effects of the cruptions of which may be traced to within two or three miles of the temples themselves.

A THIRD and effectual source of destruction is the removal of materials, for commonical purposes, and of the images, and sculptures from misplaced curiosity; of this source there are ample traces, not to mention that the neighbouring dykes, are chiefly composed of the stones, of the temples: in some places, a Yoni will be sound as a rice mortar, and in others the Linga, buried in the ground to a sufficient length to afford a convenient scat: at the town of Ayugyacarta I discovered a great many images, and traced a large portion of them, to Prambanan, from whence some of them, had been brought within a sew years only.

A FOURTH Tource of destruction, which I chiefly state on the authority of the natives, has been the search for hidden treasure; evidences indeed of the frequency of this practice, may be traced among the ruins, in the pits surrounded by excavated earth. Stones, and rubbish, which are so often seen.

Among the causes of the dilipidation, of the temples of Prambanan, I have not included, though it may at first fight appear a probable one, the effects of the fanaticism of the early mahomedans: my chief reasons for believing that religious zeal, had little share in their destruction, are in the first place that no marks of wilful and malicious violence, are discoverable either in the temples of Prambanan, or any other on the island: many of the images, which would

naturally be the first objects of destruction with the zealots, are quite entire, and all of them, will be discovered to be in a state of preservation proportionate to that of the temples, in which they sland: when these have sallen in, the images will be found either crushed, mutilated or slightly injured in proportion to the weight of the incumbent materials.

In the second place, it is to be remarked, that judging from the relapect, in which these temples are still held, we may infer the veneration with which they must have been considered at the period of the conversion, and that immediately subsequent to it, and hence conclude the improbability of any violence being offered to them: the conversion of the Javanese indeed was rather the effect of a sort of fashion, and of example, than conviction: after the discipline of near three centuries and a half they are still but luke-warm mahomedans: prudential motives would therefore have actuated even the most fanatic of the earlier leaders of Mahomedanism, to respect the objects which were venerated by the people. From the facts handed down to us respecting the history of this conversion, we are indeed made acquainted with the extraordinary attention, paid by the early leaders, to the prejudices of their followers, for in many respects they rather blended Islamism with the ancient superstitions of the country. than established a thorough revolution in religion, a fact on which: probably hinges the chief fecret of their fuccess.

I AM inclined to consider the religion of the sounders of Prambanan, as a genuine example, of the resormed worship, of Buddha. I venture to conjecture, that the religion of Buddha as practised on Java, was not the worship of any dessed person of this name, but a resormation of the bloody rites of Siva and Dunga brought about by certain sages or philosophers, who are represented by the images of Buddha.

11

BUDDHA; which I understand may be rendered from the Stingliff, which religion of the philosophers. It is remarkable, that among the Javanese, the name of Buddha, is wholly unknown to persons of the other. Hindu gods, nor is it to the best of my knowledge, to be discovered in the relics of their ancient writings, which are crowded with the names of the indian divinities. (*!)

The most striking sact however in corroboration, of the opinion, I have advanced, is that the statues of Buddha, are never sound in the great central temples, where we expect the principal objects of worship. On the contrary, they seem rather to be in the situation of votaries themselves: at Chandi Siwu for example they appear occupying the small temples only, and looking sowards the great central building would seem as if adoring the object placed there. The same thing is the case at Placeat. (†)

Convoluents to this opinion, of the founders, of Prambinan, practifing a reformed worthip of Siva I think we may observe that the representations of this divinity, and his Sacri, are in their mildest forms. The most wrathful form, of Durga on Java, the horrid divinity to whom human sacrifices were offered in India, is her punishment of the demon of wickedness, an act rather of beneficence than cruelty: except on this occasion, she is pourtrayed as a rather handsome and unsoffending semale.

^(*) The modern Javanese use he word Burdha, or as they write it Burdhor Burd the seafest approximation to the true orthography which their al, habet will afford, to express what belongs to succent times, that is to the times when they were Buddhists.

^(†) I have seen a statue of Bondua more than once with a Linga growing from the crownof the head.

A 3

MANA-DEVI I have seen on one occasion (*.) sitting on a pile of human sculls and decked with a neck-lace of the same materials. At Prambanan, he appears conce, as already mentioned executing vengeance on a tyrant, but by far the most frequent form, of this deity on fava, is that of a venerable and harmless devotee.

We may be convinced from a variety of facts, that the buildings of Prambanan, and all similar structures, are not the work of the natives of the country, but of foreigners and were we to draw any conclusion in favour of the general civilization of the people, from the perfection attained in these, we should argue erroneously. Hinduism, or at least the doctrines of Buddish, flourished on Java for a period of about 500 years, when the emigrations from India ceasing or becoming less frequent, the Javanese, were lest to themselves, and the monu-ments, crecked from this time, until the utter overthrow of Hinduism, a period of more than a century, evince the rude state of the arts among them, and sufficiently attest, that Prambanan, and all monuments of a fimilar nature, were not the work of the natives. best examples of this degeneracy, are in the Hindu relics, discovered in the mountain of Lawa. These are evidently dedicated to the same worship as the others, but they are remarkably rude, and on the slightest inspection, are discovered to be the work of a very disferent race of people, from the older temples. On the buildings at Sucuh, to the northern side of the mountain, there are the dates 1361, and 1362, only 38 or 39 years, before the establishment of Mahomedanism, and a century posterior to the building of Boro Bodor, the last of the genuine Hindu temples. If farther proofs were required,

^(*) One of six statues now at Samarang, and by far the finest on Jane. They were brought from Tanam-arum (garden of performes) in the district of Malung towards, the eastern end of the island. This is said to have been the principal place of worship of a rage of kings, whose residence was at Saihasari in the same district. The six statues are, the figure of Siva, already mentioned, a figure of Dunga punishing Mahusabura, a statue of Ganesa, one of Nanda and two grantic male statues, one of them with a trident which I take to be also figures of Mahadaya.

that the natives of Java, were not the builders of Prambanan, or similar structures, I would observe that in a period of 338 years, which has elapsed, since their conversion to Mahomedanism, during which they have been, in matters of this nature nearly left to themselves, they have not constructed a single building, that can be compared with even the rudest of the Hindu temples, and their mosques of the earliest and latest periods, are mean and paltry wooden fabrics, utterly unworthy of any notice.

THE country of the founders of Prambanan, and of all others, who propagated Hinduism on Java is certainly the kingdom of Telinga on the peninful of India or Calin, as it is universally written, and pronounced in Java, and every other country of the archipelago: this is the only country of India, known to the Javanefe, by its proper name, the only-one familiar to them, and the only one of which mention is made in their books. Hence they defignate all India by this name, and know it by ino other, except indeed, when by an excufable vanity, they would infer the equality of their island, with that great continent and speak of them relatively as the countries on this, or on that fide of the water, common modes of expression. It may be farther stated, that Javanese tradition, invariably ascribes the introduction of Hinduism, to the matives of Telinga. The principal native intercourse between India, and Java, as well as the other islands, down to the present, is from the same countries. That the intercourse was at all events, with the countries on the eastern coast of the peninfula of India, may be inferred by the Ariking agreement between certain remains of the ancient institutions of Javi, and those peculiar to the Indian countries in question. The most remarkable example is afforded in the calendar (*.) the zera of Salivana, which is that, which existed on Java, is in India, I believe nearly confined

⁽⁴⁾ This removaed personage is nuknewn in the Andren islands by the name of Salivana, the

to the Decean. The year in Carnatic and Telings, was tunar with intercalations of one month in every thirty, and this was the ancient mode of reckoning also on Java, and is so still on Eals, as its name Saca Warfu Chandra distinctly implies.

It is still more remarkable with respect to the zers, to find the Javanese, and Balinese, agreeing precisely, with the more northern nations, of the Deccan, in reckoning the birth of Salivana; as it is known, that the latter differ by one year in their calculations from their southern, neighbours.

In conclusion I shall add that the worship of Burdha, and of Sava, of the Linga, and Yont, were if I am rightly informed the prevailing forms of religion in the Deccan, in the period when we suppose, the intercourse with Java, to have taken place: the former was persecuted and nearly superfeded by the latter to which we may safely ascribe the downfal of the one on Java, as evinced by the striking decay of the arts which accompanied it and the triumph of the other on Eali, where as I have mentioned in a former essay it is now the prevailing form of Hinduism.

AYIGYACARTA May 1ft , 1816.

N. B. I should be wanting in candour, did I not acknowledge, the great assistance; I have received, in the compilation of this paper from the valuable Essay of Colonel McKenzie, in the volume of the Transactions of the Batavian Society.

appellutions by which I have heard him destinguished are acce or rije sace pronounced Aje Soco, according to the pirmiter enumeration of the Javanese meaning. "King Sace" and Ducut Warch, a name equivalent to "offspring of the mater" which is I believe, as well as the former, one of the titles, under which he is known in India.

Descriptions of some rare Indian Plants, by N. Wallich. Esq. Superintendent of the Botanic Garden, Calcutta.

Read February 11, and June 3, 1818.

Hedyotis Brida. Wall

- ERECTA asperula, ramis elongatis subdichotomis nudis, soliis linearibus, stipulis truncatis simbriatis pedunculis terminalibus longissimis ternis subpaniculatis, stigmatibus linearibus.
- Habitat in montibus Napaliæ, inque Turraye huic vicina; vigens Martio Mayo.
- Herba gracilis, tenuis, stricta, pedalis sesquipedalisque, radice perenni longâ sibrillosa alba.
- Caulis obsoletè tetragonus, pubescens punctisque minutis elevatis scabriusculus. Rami oppositi subbrachiati, filisormes, erecliusculi, subcomplanati, semel bisve dichotomi.
- Fokia angustissima, glabra, pollicaria ad bipollicaria, internodiis longiora,

costà subtus elevatà, basi desinentia in stipulas brevissimas vaginantes crenulatas dum juniores denticulis aliquot subulatis notatas; superiora subulata.

- Flores magni, extus purpurascentes, glabri, terni, cum solitario e dichotomiis, pedunculis elongatis gracillimis erectis instructi.
- Calycis dentes lanceolati, erecti, acuti, basi tubi adpressi.
- Corolla hypocrateriformis. Tubus gracilis, striatus, obsoletè tetragonus, semipollicaris, calyce multoties longior, apice leviter ampliatus. La-cinia oblonga, obtususcula, patentes, tubi dimidium acquantes.
- Antheræ lineares, longæ, erectæ, cum laciniis alternantes, fauce inclufæ, filamentis capillaribus brevissimis infidentes.
- Ovarium oblongum glabrum biloculare, loculis polysporis evulis septo utrinque incrassato insertis. Stylus brevis, glaber. Stigmata inclusa.
- Capfula subglobosa, magnitudine piperis nigri, glabra; sulci, placentis, carnosis, inferne septo utrinque adnatis.
- Observation. This elegant plant which appears to me quite distinct from Hedyotis graminisolia, Linn, was first communicated to me by my esteemed friend Mr. William Jáok, of the Honorable East India Company's medical service, to whose liberal and valuable botanical communications I am indebted for descriptions, drawings, and specimens of several interesting plants, from the former of which the preceeding account has almost entirely been taken. I had it afterwards from Napaul whence my people sent abundance of specimens to me, under the names of Goshega Soah.

I have retained the specific name given by Linneus to a species of O'denlandia which has been ascertained not to differ from his Hedvotis graminifolia, and I have placed my plant under the last mentioned genus on the authority of the illustrious president of the Linnean Society (see Hedyotis in Rees' New Cyclopadia) and that of my predicessor in the botanic garden at Calcutta, the late Dr. William Roxburgh, who in a note to Oldenlandia, in his

Ms. Flora Asiatica points out the apparent identity of these two genera.

Androface cordifolia. Wall.

Villosa, foliis ovato-cordatis obsuss sinuatis crenulatis scapis petiolos subsequantibus; umbella paucislora involucris setaceis; calyce campanulato corolla breviore, fructifero ampliato.

Habitat in sylvis prope Katmandu Napaliæ, vigens initio anni. Nomen Boolle Soals.

Radix gracilis nigricans fibrillofa.

- Fol a plura, crecto patentia, regulariter finuata, lobis latis rotundato-acutis, baseos approximatis, bi-tripollicaria, suprà rugosula, pilis hyalinis geniculatis præcipue ad vasorum tractus obsita, ciliata, subtus glabriora, venulosa, costà nervisque alternantibus prominulis.
- Petioli teretes, graciles, folium æquantes purpurafeențes, basi membranaceo dilatati, uti scapi umbellæque vestiti villis copiosis longia rusescentibus.

Scupi plures, filiformes, erecti.

Umbula patens, pauciflora, radiis capillaribus pollicaribus. Involucrum constans bracteolis lineari-fubulatis vix bilinearibus villosis, pediacellos numero æquantibus.

Flores majusculi.

- Calyx obsolete quinquangularis, sundo rotundato, laciniis quinque ovatis acutis ciliatis, patulis.
- Corolla albida, utrinque villosula. Tubus cylindricus calyce angustior medio vix dilatatus. Faux nuda, leviter contracta, slavescens. Laciniæ tubo Breviores subobovatæ leviter retusæ patulæ.
- Filamenta brevissima, laciniis corollæ alternantia. Antheræ erectæ medium tubi haud attingentia.
- Ovarium subrotundum, glabrum, obsoletè quinque-sulcatum, uniloculare polysporum, ovulis placentæ centrali stipitatæ insertis. Stylus capil-

- laris. Stigma capitato-clavatum supra staminibus parum elevatum. Capsula rotundata, sundo calycis persistentis globoso recondita, basi styli coronata, vertice dehiscens in valvulas quinque ovatas acutas. Semina plurima, minuta, susca, asperula, subrotunda, inserta placentæ globosæ paleaceo-villosæ pedicellatæ.
- Observation. The opinion of Dr. F. Hamilton (late Buchanan,) and Sir J. E. Smith, relative to Androsace rotundisolia (Exot. Bot. 2. p. 113) applies with equal force to this pretty little plant; both are belonging to Androsace, to which genus Cortusa Gmelini ought also to be referred, as has been remarked by Gentuse and Lamarck. The affinity between the latter and my plant is very great. All its parts, especially the sootstalks and calyces are beset with long very soft, transparent, beautifully articulated hairs, which frequently have a reddish or purplish tint. The leaves are said to possess a disagreeable smell when fresh.

Primula prolifera. Wall.

- Glaberrima, nuda, foliis oblongis lublpathulatis obtusis dentatis petiolatis, scapo longissimo, sloribus umbellatis demum verticillatis, bracteis linearibus s. s. foliaceis dissormibus.
- Habitat in montofis prope Sylhet Bengalæ orientalis ubi floret a Februario usque ad Aprilem,
- Planta omnibus partibus glabra, farinaque carens.
- Radix constans fibris crassis cylindricis cornosis rubicundis, radiculas capillares breves exserentibus,
- Folia erecto-patentia, æate obovata, argutè denticulata, valde obtusa, suprà leviter convexa, subtus costà magnà nervisque prominentibus notata, deorsum attenuata in petiolum latum canaliculatum marginatum; spithamea ad dodrantalia et ultra.
 - Scapus gracilis teres erectus, foliis fere duplo longior.



- Umbella terminalis, densa, mox post anthesia, elongatione caulis sensim mutata in verticillos duos, tres quin quatuor multisloros, inseriores remotiusculos policem duosve distantes.
- Bracleæ plures subulatæ s. lineares, pedunculis parum breviores basis gibboso-dilatatâ connatæ; nunc infra verticillum inferiorem disformes soliaceæ lanceolato-ovatæ, acutæ, undulatæ, crenulatæ, ipsum verticillum longitudine æquantes.
- Plores in singulo verticillo viginti v plures, erectiusculi, slavi, fragrantistimi, pedunculis insidentes erectiusculis gracilibus sesquipollicaribus, raro ad medium bracteolâ parvâ munitis.
- Calyx tubulosus basi obsoletè quinquangularis; lacinize lanceolatze, acun tze dorso convexze
- Corolla hypocraterifomis. Tubus calyce duplo v triplo longior, cylindricus, decemfiriatus, furfum leviter ampliatus. Limbus planus, laciniis obcordatis crenulatis basi contractis, sinu acutangulo integerrimo. Faux contracta, notata tuberculis quinque minutis bilobis. Ourrium globosum. Stylus brevissimus. Stigma subcapitatum.
- Filamenta subulata, supra basin tubi inserta. Antheræ erectæ, oblongæ inclusæ.
- Cabfula subglobosa stylo persistente coronata; matura haud visa.
- observation. For this valuable Primrose I am indebted to the industry and success of my assistant at Sythet, Mr. M. R. Smith, who sent plants to the botanic garden towards the close of 1817, producing abundance of elegant and sweetly persumed slowers the next sebruary. I have no doubt that this species as well as the not less desirable P. denticulata of Sir J. E. Smith, (Exol. Bot. 2. pag. 109) which I have received both from Sythet, and Napaul and which has also biossomed freely this year, may be cultivated with facility and propagated from their sleshy roots, which possess the smell of anise peculiar to several members of this genus.

The only species with which this elegant plant may be confounded is Primula verticillata, Forsk. flor. arab. 42, figured by my venerated preceptor, the late prosessor M. Vahl in the 1st vol. of his Symb. bot. tab. 5. In the following particulars, however they differ sufficiently to be easily distinguished. My plant is perfectly smooth and has no tendency whatever to become mealy. Its leaves are oblong and rounded at their end, and their border finely denticulated. The whorls are many slowered with erect or adpressed bractes, which vary in their form, but generally are leasy in the lowest and linear in the others. The slowers are at first collected in a terminal umbel, soon after they have expanded the stalk shoots up from their centre, and is terminated by another umbel. In this manner three or sour successive umbels become as many verticils. The corolla seems to be altogether larger, and the crenulated margins of its border wanting in P. verticillata.

Campanula stricta. Wall.

Aspera pilis brevibus rigidis, caule gracili tereti subdichotomo, ramis simpliciusculis strictis, soliis liniaribus integerrimis sessilibus, mediis approximatis, calycibus subpaniculatis prismatico-turbinatis tubum campanulatum subæquantibus, corollis puberulis, laciniis lanceo-latis, capsulis poris sex ad basin dehiscentibus.

Habitat in pratis prope Katmandu, florens initio anni.

Nomen vernaculum Naufa Soah.

Planta pedalis basi simplex, medio ramosus, omnibus partibus a pilis copiosis albicantibus aspera.

Folia sessilia, sparsa, bipollicaria, angustissima, leviter undulata, erectiuscula, ciliata, basi angustata, utrinque piloso-aspera, subtus costà nervisque aliquot prominulis albicantibu.

Flores terminales subpaniculati majusculi, campanulati, cœrulei.

Pedunculi capillares elongati ad basin bracteola subulata muniti.

Calyx nervoso-angulatus, laciniis erectis lanceolatis acutis.

Corollæ tubus amplus limbo patente subcrenulato.

Stamina brevia. Stigma trilobum, lobis teretibus crassis patulis, styloque pubescentibus.

Capfula tres lineas longa, inter nervos baseos poris inæqualibus dehiscens.

Observation. This species approaches to C. gracilis, Forst. differing however in its bell-shaped corol, the singular dehiscence of its capsule and the entire leaves,

Campanula pallida. Wall.

Hirfuta, foliis lanceolatis ferratis subpetiolatis, caule ramoso, pedunculis longissimis terminalibus subpaniculatis, laciniis calycis corollam campanulatam fere æquantibus.

Habitat in Napalia ad loca slerilia. Floret cum præcedente.

Erecla, pedalis bipedalisque, omnibus partibus obsita pilis densis canis patentibus.

Radix lignofa, gryfea.

Caulis teres, angulosus, substexuosus, basi ramosus. Rami graciles alterni, simplices, subsastigiati.

Folia alterna, patentia, lanceolata, utrinque acuta, crenato-serrata, pollicaria v. sesquipollicaria, basi attenuata in petiolum brevem marginatum, utrinque pilis densissimis cavis mollibus vestita. Superiora s. sloralia linearia, eroso-dentata, unguicularia.

Flores terminales caulis ramularumque, folitarii, pedunculati, albidi, paniculam formantes tenuem, terminalem, subfastigiatam.

Pedunculi filisormes, pollicares bipollicaresque, teretiusculi, nudi s. medio soliolo lineari stipati erecto-patentes, calycesque pilosi.

- Cayx turbinatus, quinqueangularis, laciniis patentibus lanceolatis valde acuminatis corollam fere æquantibus.
- Corolla campanulata striata extus pilosa, laciniis lanceolatis acutis.
- Filamenta subulato-capillaria e basi triangulari incurvatà ciliatà; antheræ conniventes elongatæ, lineares, apice silamenti denudatà terminatæ, faucem haud attingentes.
- Ovarium vertice glabrum. Stylus pubescens. Stigmata tria subulata recurvata.
- Observation. I possess specimens of a plant, which probably is only a variety of this species, with radical and lower leaves oblong lanceolate dentate, purplish on the under surface; the upper ones linear-lanceolate, two inches long and remotely denticulated or almost entire; slowers pale blue. They were also collected in the fields near Katmandy.

Lobelia pyramidalis. Wall.

- Lævis, caule erecto paniculato, foliis lanceolatis attenuato-acuminatis ferrulatis, floralibus linearibus, racemis paniculatis foliosis, laciniis calveinis corollam æquantibus.
- Habitat in Napalia et Bengala orientalissorens mensibus anni prioribus. Nomen Kasianum Atia chao.
- Pianta herbacea lævis, erecta, tri-quadripedalis soliosa, caule ramisque soliorumque marginibus plerumque violaceis.
- Caulis teres, vrassus, medullosus, angulis aliquot obtusis e ramulorum insertione decurrentibus notatus, basi simplex, sursum ramulis axillaribus copiosis erecto-patentibus paniculatis simplicibus.
- Folia sessila, sparsa, patentia, clongata lanceolata serrulata, in acumen gracile attenuata, basi angustata, tenua, costa subtus elevata, nervisque arcuatis, rediculato-venosa; interiora dodrantalia et

- ultra, medii caulis angustiora brevioraque, 4-6 pollicaria; suprema linearia angustissimè acuminata, bipollicaria
- Racemi terminales ramulorum omnium caulifque, paniculati, multiflori, oblongi, foliofi.
- Pedunculi sparsi, approximati, patentes, filiformes, unciales, basi suffulti foliolo slorali s. brastoù lineari siliformi subintegerrima, ipsum-longitudine paulo superante.

Flores albi vel pallide violacci, odorati.

Calyx oblongus, laciniis lineari filiformibus longiffimis.

- Corolla basi subtubulosa, secunda, juxta totam longitudinem sissa, in us puberula, laciniis ciliatis, tribus intermediis lanceolatis, lateralibus duabus linearibus profundius separatis.
- Filamenta diffincta linearia, ciliata. Antheræ violaceæ in tubulum apice incurvum cohærentes dorfo pilis aliquot vestita, inferiores duæ falciculo pilorum terminata.
- Ovarium biloculare. Siyius filiformis. Stigma puberulum bilobum fubexfertum.
- Observation. In the beginning of 1816 I received for the first time specimens of this elegant Lobelia from my assistant Mr. Smith at Sylhet, and in the beginning of 1818 I had abundance from Napaul. Its racemes are numerous and leasy and give the plant a very gay appearance.

Lobelia begonifolia. Wall.

Repens villosa herbacea, soliis brevè petiolatis subrotundo-cordatis dentatis basi inæqualibus, pedunculis axillaribus unissoris solium subæquantibus ebracleatis, laciniis calycinis linearibus acuminatis, medio vel basi 1-v.-2 dentatis corollæ tubo paullo longioribus.

Habitit in agris prope Katmandu, vigens Aprili, Maio. Nomen Tosnephoga.

- Caulis clongatus teres profiratus laxus, ramique radicantes apicibu leviter affurgentes graciles simpliciusenli, uti tota plan a obsiti villis brevibus mollissimis canis hyalinis.
- Folia alterna subbisaria, policaria vel infra lobis boseos rotun datis inæqualibus altero interdum obliterato acutê et grossè dentata præcipue extrocsum, inferiora rotundato obtusa, superiora minora acuta, suprà glabric, a subtus pal, ida, ad vasa villosa, venuso pervosa.

Petioli vix semiunguiculares, suprá sulcati, apice parum dilatati. Pedunculi pauci, erecti, crassiusculi, soli en subæ quantes raro longiores. Cul cis laciniæ glabræ, attenuato-acuminaæ.

- Corolla coerulescens intus puberula, tube fisso, limbo unilaterali, laciniis linearibus, lateralibus profundius separatis.
- Filamenta apice connitæ. Antheræ violaceæ imberbes, inferiores diæ pilo brevi cano terminatæ.
- Cvarium oblongum medio leviter ventricosum, glabrum. Stigma integrum villosulum.

Caffula subrotunda, ma'ura haud viso.

Others by its oblique leaves which in this respect are like these of a Begords. The stems are creeping to a considerable extent rooting at short distances and sending forth safeicles of pseeding generally simple, from 6 to 10 inches long branches, some of which lay down again and strike roots.

Uvularia parvislora. Wall.

Folis oblongo-lanceo dis valde acuminais petiolatis, pedanculis oppolitifolis clongatis apice bradea foliacea, floribus umbellatis infundibuliformibus, filamentis natus antheras fulcæ juantabus
Habitat in nemaribus Isa a in, vigens Aprili, Mayo.

Nomen Doola Soah.

- Planta erecta debilis sæpe fruticibus vicinis superincumbens, ommibus partibus lævis tripedalis v. orgyalis.
- Tad x horizontalis crassa, emittens sibras copiosas carnosas cylindricas.
- Cau'es aliquot teretes nitidi glaucescentes erecti nudi infernè usque ad digitum minimum crassi, induti vaginis bipollicaribus membranaceis acuminatis laxis purpureo punctatis, supernè dichotomè ramosi.

 Rami debiles hine inde curvi soliosi subsimplices.
- Tolio oblonga in acumin longum gracile attenuata, bali acuta, margine membranaceo alperulo ad lontem denticulata, plana multinervia stria a se spollicaria, pollicom i ta, superiora argustiora.
- Petuli vix semiunouculares a decurrente solio marginati, plano sulcari, tasi dilatata semiamplexante.
- Pedunculi versus luministes plures, erectiuscu'i, bipolicares, angulati papilloso-punctulati, infra apicem incurvam leviterque incrassiatam toho si mah ramois simili instructi, sexsiori. Pedicelli shisormes, pol icares, umbel ari ebracteati.
- Fib es coma, e susce savescentes, infundibulisormes vix semiunciales, profit de sexuatici, basi contracta protuberantiis sex aqualibus bievibus gibbosa. Lacinia lanceolara, acuminata, extus carinata, intus plana lacvos basi incressa excavata in tubulum brevissionum: interiores tres paulo minores.
- Stamina perianthii dimidium vix superantia, inter ejus basin et ovarium inf rta, recta. Falamenta brevissima crassa latiuscula, antheris oblacijis obtusis basi cordatis, parum breviora.
- Ortrium ti loculare ovacum, ovulis pluribus placentæ ceutrali adfixis.

 Etolits brevis craffit. Si guata tria cyhudrica patula obtula, parum fupra autheris elevaja

Uvu'aria umbellata. H'all.

Fotiis subsessibus oval.bus acu s, superioribus lanceolatis acuminatis,

umbellis oppositifoliis brevè pedunculatis bractea foliacen instructis, pedicellis elongatis divaricatis, staminibus periantmume fere aquantibus, antheris filamento triplo brevioribus.

- Habitat et viget cum antecedente cui radice caule ramifque fimilis, staturâ vero minor graciliorque.
- Folia bi-tripollicaria brevissimè petiolata, inseriora basi rotundata, superiora lineari lanceolata, basi acuta.
- Pedunculus umbellulæ brevis crassus valde incurvus subtus margine intermedio papilloso-cristato interdum duplici notatus. Pedicelli bipollicares subdessexi.
- Perianthium flavum, cernuum, profunde sexpartitum, policare, basi angustată subtubulosă gibberibus sex rugosulis, alternis (luciniarum interiorum) minoribus notatum, superne ampliarum patens. I accinia lineari-cuneata, striata, acutiuscula, subdenticulata, pilis brevibus argenteis adpressis conspersa, leviter ciliata, basi augustată desinente in sacculum brevem cujus margini adfixum est stanen.

Filamenta filiformia erecia. Antheræ ad faucem floris.

Ovarium turbinatum, breve. Stylus gracilis stamina æquans. Stigmata elongata patentia, hine puberula, clavata, supra antheris elevata.

Observation. This species seems to dister from U. chinensis. (Bot. Mag. Vol. xx. 916) in having yellow long peduncled slowers placed in spreading umbellets opposite to the insertion of the leaves; in the segments being narrower and slightly pubescent, and the sligma raised above the long stamina.

I am in possession of a third apparently different plant, which from want of complete specimens I am not able at present to determine satisfactorily.

Convalaria oppositifolia. Wall.

Caule tereli, foliis oppositis p. Atis ovatis v. oblongis acuminatis glabris, pedunculis axillarious acuminatis infundi-



Ramnant se

buliformibus.

Habitat in montibus Bengalæ orientalis, etiam in Napalias

Nomen khasianum, Kattin Sekuria.

- Radix perennis, magna, carnofa, constans nodis pollicaribus ovatis s. rotundatis laevibus, vertice favea notatis ampla duplici, deorsum fibras copiosas crassas aliasque capillaceas emittentibus.
- Caules ex eadem radice numerosi oblique adscendentes s. inclinati, triquadripedales, apice subnutantes, uti omnes plantæ partes laeves, nitidi, basi leviter incrassati, vaginati, punctis cepiosis purpureis obsiti, teretes s. leviter compressi, sitmi, crassitie caiami seriptorii, obsolete articulato siexuosi. Vaginæ aliquot ad inferiorem partem caulis erectæ alternæ cylindricæ striatæ purpurascentes ore obliquæ acutæ, emarcescentes.
- Folia adfeendentia, fecunda, patentia, firma, tubeoriacea, tri-quadripollicaria, in acumen gracile lineare attenuata, basi acuta, margine
 subrevoluta, lucida, supra atroviridia juxta narvos sulenta, subsus
 pallida 5 ad 7 nervia nervis alternis obsoletis, costa elevata carinata.
 Juniora (turionum-novellatum) decustatini opposita, luctissimè virentia.
- Péioli brevissimi, viz semiunguiculares, crassi, suprà sulcati.
- Flores e latere inferiore caulis; i. e. illo foliorem opposito provenientes nutantes; inodori, albi, punchis purpurascentibus conspersi, laciniis viridescentibus:
- Pedancu'i axillares, solitarii, unguiculares, punctati, 3-ad 8-stori. Pedicelli gracillimi clavati semipollicares, basi mediove bracteola capillari incurva.
- Perianthium apice leviter contractum, luciniis patentibus lanceolatis acutis, apice intus fasciculo villorum munitis.
- Filamenta supra basia perianthii inserta, conniventia. Antheræ lineares of sagittatæ exsertæ, conum sormantes acutum stigma includentemo

- Ovarium oblongum, teres, triloculare, trifulcum, loculis polysporis. Stylus filisormis subclavatus. Stigma subtrigonum villis plurimis hyalinis obsitum.
- Bacca rubra, laevis, trifulca, magnitudine pifi, loculis tri-v. tetraspermis.

 Coet. ut in Convallaria majali, Gaert. carp. 1.59. t 16.
- Mr. Smith. They produced new shoots in February 1818, which blossomed the next month. The elegantly formed arched and shining leaves and the pretty, drooping slowers add to the interest, which this plant cannot fail creating in those, who have been delighted with the fragrance and beauty of its cognate Lity of the valley and Salomon's Seal. Its root is formed precisely like that of the latter (Convallaria Polygonatum) and it partakes of its whole habit, while its opposite leaves, affording another instance of true petiols in this genus, sufficiently dislinguish it from that and all the other species.

I have fince the abovementioned period received abundant supplies of roots seeds and specimens from Napaul through the liberality of the Honorable Mr. Gardner.

Convallaria cirrhifolia Wall.

Scandens; soliis verticillatis senis linearibus apice cirrhatis.

Habitat in Napalia ubi vocatur Goobafa. Floret Aprili, ad Mayum. Radix carnofa, digitum circiter crassa, nodis elongatis foveolatis.

- Caulis uti tota planta laevis, leviter glaucescens, teres, crassitie calami scriptorii, attenuato-clongatus, quadripedalis, debilis simplex scandens, basi nudus et purpureo-maculatus.
- Folia lineam vel duas lata, pollices tres ad quatuor longa, firiata, costa subtus elevata, cauli approximata, marginibus revolutis, basi





subincrassata, apice attenuata in cirrhum brevem recurvatum siliformem semipollicarem; inseriora solitaria opposita ternave, reliqua disposita in verticillos sexsolios numerosissimos internodiis longiores, superiores valde approximatos.

Pedunculi axillares, tot quot folia, vel pauciores, teretes, semipolicares, nutantes, trislori. Pedicelli capillares pedunculos longitudine subrequantes, clavati, basi vel infra medium instructi bracteola alba
capillacea decidua.

Fieres penduli, albi,

- Perianthium tubulosum unguiculare, sexcostatum, versus saucem leviter contractum. Laciniæ ovatæ obtusæ apice intus acervulo villorum terminatæ.
- Filamenta infra basin laciniarum inserta iisque opposita subulata brevissima. Antheræ lineares, filamentis longiores subsagittatæ, parum enseriæ.
- Orarium teres subcylindricum triloculare, loculis bi-vel trisporis; ovula axi addina. Stylus filiformis. Stigma villis s. papillis hyalinis obsitum.
- Observation. The only species to which this remarkable plant has any assimily is Convallaria verticillata from which, however, it is easily distinguished at first fight by the numerous many leaved verticils and the tendril at the end of each leaf.*

Daphne involucrata. Wall.

Capitulis axillaribus lateralibusque pedunculatis erecto-patentibus involucratis, perianthiis sericeo-villosis, foliis alternis oblongo-lanceolatis.

^{*} Since the above description was presented to the Specity I have got a copy of field on e's Laine cessin which, Vol. VI. 315, there is a description of Polygonatum sibiricam. This species, which none of the botanical authors in my possession quotes, is exceedingly like my plant; it seems however to differ in having few-leaved verticits and in the bractes being much larger.

petiolatis acuminatis, subtus glaucescentibus-

Habitat in sylvis montium prope Sylhet Bengalæ orientalis, slorens tempofrigido.

Frutex ramofissima.

Rami teretes, glabri, corrice castaneo nitente, aetate albicante.

Folia alterna, raro opposita, petiolata, integerrima, tri-quadripolicaria, basi acuta, coriacea, glaberrima, suprà nitida, costa valde prominente nervisque copiosis subtransversalibus, reticulato-venosa.

Petioli brevissimi, suprà plano-sulcati.

Stipulæ ad folia primordialia subulata, pilosula, admodum caduca, nullo earum vestigio manente.

Cepitula axillaria et lateralia in axillis foliorum præteriti anni, pedunculata, hemisphærica, erecliuscula, solitaria, rarius geminata, sex-ad decemsora.

Fedunçuli pollicares vel infrà, filiformes, graciles, incrassato-clavati, villosi, bast muniti bracteolis aliquot subulatis deciduis.

Involucrum caducum, purpurascens, diphyllum. Foliola ovata, obtusa, concaviuscula, semiunguicularia, integerrima, pubescentia, intus sericea, striata, æstivatione sierum capitulum omnino includentia.

Flores sessies, albi, suaveclen es.

Perianthium hypocrateriforme, gracile, semipollicare, extus villis densisationis adpressis sericeis intus glaberrimum, marcescens limbo patente quadrisido; laciniæ linceolatæ, acutæ, imbricantes; duæ oppositæ minores, æstivatione inclusæ. Faux nuda pervisa.

Stamina octo, erecta, seriebus duabus tubo inserta; succeiora quatuor subexserta, saciniis opposita; inferiora iisdem alternantia in medio tubi. Filamenta capillaria, brevissima. Anthoras lineares so oblongæ, utrinque longitudinaliter dehiscentes, biloculares.

Pistillum brevissimum, quartam perianthii partem haud, excedens. Ova-





shrupersand del

Daphne cannalina Lowe!

Fasinaut .

rium oblongum, basi nectario, membranaceo cylindrico truncato integerrimo cinctum, supernè villis longis erectis barbatum, unilo-culare, monosporum, ovulo vertice adsixo. Stylus filisormis villis ovarii occultus, iisque vix. longior, leviter tortuosus. Stigma magnum, capitatum, cornosum, luteum, rugulosum, vertice retusum.

Observation. Specimens of this handsome shrub were sent to me in 1815, from Sythet, by Mr. M. R. SMITH, who informs me that a very good and durable kind of hemp is prepared of its sibrous bank. With the exception of their being permanently erect, the heads of slowers agree well with Sir J. E. SMITH'S excellent defeription of those of Daphne pendula. Plant. ined. safe. ii. 31.

Daphne cannabina Loureir

Floribus aggregatis terminalibus fessilibus bracteatis, perianthiis pubescentibus; soliis lanceolatis sparsis sessilibus, retusis vel acutiusculis. Daphne cannabina, umbellis terminalibus, soliis lanceolatis oppositis. Loureir: cochinch. ed. Willd. i. 291. ?

Habitat un montolis Hindestâniae metidionalis, e Napalia usque ad provinciam Kamom, slorens Decembre ad Martium. Fructus maturescunt mensibus Aprili et Maio.

Nomen Set-Burova. Nepalenfibus Bhulloo-Soang. ‡

Fru'ex sex-ad' octopedalis; ramolissima, ramis sparsis rigidis teretibus, contice pathdo glabro rugosulo, intus sericco-sibroso.

Folia approximata, subcoriacea, sanceolata, s. oblongo-lanceolata, utrinque attenuata, apice sepissime retusa, interdum acuta, tri-quadripollicaria, glaberrima, atroviridia, suprà nitida, subtus opaca, costà clevarà nervisque gracissimis sublongitudinalibus, interdum obsostetè et remotè crenulata.

[†] I understand from Mr. Gardver that Soung, Soun and Swa are synchymous terms in the language of Nepaul, and signify if flowers?

Flores majusculi, albi, fragrantissimi, duodecim circiter congesti in capitulum terminale, sæpe (ut jam monuit Cel. J. Sims, sub Daphne adora, Botanical Magazine, vol. zezeni 1587) apice
rami elongatâ pubescente pedunculatum, susfultum bracieis
(soliis tenellis?) lanceolatis acuminatis elabris enguicularibus.

Perianthium tubulosum, extus pubescentia copiosa sericea obsitum, tubo cylindrico unguiculari, receptaculo dilatato tuberculato pubescenti subadnato; limbo patentissimo quadripartito, laciniis ovatis subretusis vel lanceolatis acutis. Faux pervia.

Stamina ut in priore. Series superiornm supra faucem elevata.

Pistillum laeve. Ovarium oblongum basi circumdatum annulo obsolete angnstissimo carnoso sublobato. Stylus et Stigma præcedentis.

Drupa ovato-oblonga, acuta, glabra, rubra. Putamen tenuissimum, submembranaceum, paliidum.

Semen globosum, album.

Radicula conica, faveolæ bascos catyledonum leviter immersa. Plumula punctiformis.

Coetera ut in Thymelaea Mazereo, Gaertn. carp. I. 188. tab. 39.

Observation. Among the extensive and constant supplies of plants and seeds from Napaul which the botanic garden owes to the liberality of the Honorable Edward Gardner, Resident at Katmandu are also specimens and plants of the Paper-shrub, which I am informed by that gentleman grows very commonly in that country, and when in flower is exquisitely fragrant. It appears there are two varieties, one with perfectly white the other with reddish slowers; both are used for ornament and for the manufactory of Paper, of which I am enabled to present to the Society's Museum specimens of various dimensions and texture. The common kind measures generally about two seet square. The finest kind measures ten seet in length by 4 seet in breadth; and is manufac-

It approaches in softness and size to that which is made in China, and it is not improbable that some of the latter may be produced from the same material. Lourens mentions that paper is manufactured in the neighbouring kingdom of Cochinchina from the bark of his D. cannabina which seems to differ only in having opposite leaves: a circumstance which may perhaps be owing to culture. It comes extremely near to D. adora of Thunbers and D. indica of Osbeck, which (at least that described in the flora cochinchinensis) Dr. Sims with great propriety suggests may be only a variety of the sormer. The question respecting the identity or difference of these three plants can be settled only by those, who have the means of comparing specimens of them.

I am indebted for an account of the manner of preparing the paper from the bark of this charming shrub, and for some parts of the description given above, to the communications of Lieut. H. R. Murray, and to the following notes extracted from the official correspondence of that gentleman with the Military Board at Calcutta.

The Set-bursoa or Paper-shrub is found on the most exposed parts of the mountains, and those the most elevated and covered with snow, throughout the province of Kamoon. In traversing the oak forests between Bheemtah and Ramgur, and again from Almora to Chumpawat, and down towards the river, it has come under the immediate observation of the writer of these communications that the Set-Bursoa or Paper-plant only thrives luxuriantly where the oak grows; so that it is not likely that it will succeed in the plains. It is hardy and attains a height of 5 to 6 feet; blossoming in January and February, and ripening its acrid red fruit about the end of April. The paper prepared of its bark is particularly calculated for cartridges, being

DESCRIPTIONS OF

- firong, tough not liable to crack, or break, however much bent e or folded, proof against being moth-eaten, and not in the least " lubject to dampnels from any change in the weather; besides, " if drenched or kept in water for any, confiderable time, it " will not rot. It is invariably used all over Kamoon, and in great " request in many parts of the plains, for the purpose of writing ufubnamees or genealogical Records, Deeds &c. from its ex-" traordinary durability. It is generally made about one yard "(square, and of three different qualities. The best fort is re-" tailed at the rate of 40 sheets for a current rapee, and at whole-" fale 80 sheets. The second is retailed at the rate of 50, sheets 46 for a current rupee and roo, at wholesale. The third of a much " smaller size, is retailed at 140 sheets, and wholesale 160 to 170, for " the rupee. The following is the very simple, process of manufactur-" ing this paper. After foraping off the outer furface of the bark, " what remains is boiled in fair water with a small quantity of " the ashes, of the oak, a most necessary, part of the ingredients, " which has the effect of cleaning and whitening the stuff. Af-" ter the boiling, it is washed and immediately beat to a pulp " with small mallets on a stone, so that when mixed up in a vat " with the fairest water, it has the appearance of flour and water. " It is then spread on moulds or frames made of common bamboo mais."

Daphne Gardneri. Wall.

Capitulis lateralibus pedunculatis sericeis maximis exactè globosis, perianthii laciniis subrotundis, interioribus crenulatis, sligmate acuto oblongo, soliis lanceolatis acutis petiolatis, subtus villoss.

Habitat in montibus Napalize, ubi sloret vigetque initio anni.

Nomen vernaculum Chuckmaree. Soah.



Daphne Gardnen

- Frutex orgyalis, statură et habitu antecedentis, ramis copiosis teretibus suscis pubescentibus, junioribus leviter angulatis villosis.
- Folia sparsa, utrinque acuta v. subacuminata, 4 ad 5-pollicaria, pollicem circiter lata, integerrima, suprà glabra, subtus obsita pilis mollissimis longis adpressa, præsertim juxta vasa glaucescentia, costà nervisque brevibus prominentibus albicantibus. Tenella uti capitula tomento vestita sericeo mollissimo densissimo.
- Petioli villosi, semiunguiculares, suprà sulcati.
- Flores subcarnosi slavi fragrantissimi, pollicares, extus capiosissime et densissime villosi, intus laeves, sessiles, quinquaginta circiter congesti in capitula ad ramulos lateralia, erecto-patentia demum nutantia, globosa, diametri sesqui-sel bipollicaris, basi cincta involucro octo-v. decemphyllo emarcescente deciduo intus sericeo, soliolis lanceolatis acuminatis unguicularibus, reslexis et a storibus occultis,
- Pedunculus subcomplanatus, pubescens, clavatus, striatus, sublignosus, pollicaris v. sesquipollicaris apice valde tumidus et intra involucri soliola elevatus in receptaculum semiglobosum crassum saveolatum villosum.
- Perianthii tubus amplus cylindricus pallidus basi apiceque leviter contractus, rectus. Limbus patens, laciniis obtusis, interioribus (i. e. illis assivatione reconditis) inaequaliter crenulatis.
- Antheræ ovatæ, utrinque juxta totam longitudinem dehiscentes: series superiorum supra faucem perviam exsertæ.
- Ovarium obovatum, superne densissimè barbatum; basi cinctum annulo membranaceo crenulato angustissimo Stylus silisormis, pubescens. Stigma subcylindricum, acutum, carnosum, stylo longius, vix ad inferiorem antherarum seriem elevatum.
- Chfervation. Nothing can exceed the beauty and fragrance of this lovely shrub, which I lately received from, and which I have the greatest satisfaction in naming after its discoverer, the Honorable

EDWARD GARDNER, of whose invaluable botanical communications I have already had several occasions to speak before this learned Society. It is owing to the ready and most liberal compliance of that Gentleman with my wishes that I have been enabled to sond two of my people to Napaul, under the fanction of Government, for the express purpose of collecting plants, seeds and preserving specimens for the Honorable Company's Botanic Garden at Calcutta; and it is to the protection and affiftance he has invariably granted to them in their excursions in that novel country, as well as to his own individual refearches, that I have to attribute the frequent and extensive additions which since September 1817 have almost daily been made to the riches of this institution, forming a memorable and important Æra in its ann.ls. Among the many useful and ornamental vegetable productions thus received. this new and distinct species of Daphne stands foremost. I am informed it grows to be a large shrub and is cultivated exenfively about Katmandu, both on account of its beauty and perfume, and also on account of the utility of its bark, affording a material of which a superior fort of paper is made in Nupoul. The process of this manufactory, as well as the effential qualities of the paper, of which I have the fatisfaction to present musters to the Society, does not differ from those of the other species.

Andromeda lanceolata. Wall.

Fruticola, racemis terminalibus basi soliosis secundis brevibus simplicibus, corollis subovatis, silamentis ciliatis ap ce sagittatis, antheris muticis biporis, soliis lanceolatis utrinque acutis integerrimis, subtus puberulis.

Habitat in montosis Bengalæ orientalis ubi sloret nitio anni. Nomen Khasianum Kattia-atianga.





et ek emala evalifelis

- Rami rigidiusculi; juniores incano-villosi.
- Folia sparsa, approximata, policaria et sesquipollicaria, coriacea, supra laevia nitida, subtus vasculosa, nervis suboppositis longitudinalibus reticulatis; pubescentia; adultiora glabra.
- Petioli vix semiunguiculares, jurescentes, suprà canaliculati.
- Racemi terminales omnium ramulorum, rarius laterales, solitarii, cylindrici, bipollicares, basi soliosi, pedunculo tereti angulato pedicellisque unguicularibus puberulis.
- Flores parvi, alterni, albi, cernui, pilis argenteis paucis adspersi, bracteola lineari ad bassa pedicellorum.
- Calyx urceolatus planiusculus, tariaceus, laciniis lanceolatis.
- Corolla calyce pluries longior subcylindrica fauce parum contracta, leviter angulata. Laciniæ brevissimæ, ovatæ, acutæ patulæ.
- Filamenta capillaria, villis longis obsita, basi dilatata, infra apicem utrinque instructa denticulo subulato deorsum vergente, inde sub-sagittata. Antheræ oblongæ, hasi emarginatæ, apice poris binis obliquis dehiscentes.
- Oarium, subovatum quinquesulcatum. Stylus longitudine circiter staminum, Stigma clavato-truncatum.
- Capsula serruginea magnitudine seminis piperis nigri, costis quinque dilutioribus elevatis ad commissuras valvarum. Semina plurima.

Andromeda ovalifolia. Wall.

- Arborea, racemis lateralibus subterminalibusque elongatis soliis longioribus simplicibus conjugatisque attenuatis secundis, corollis cylindricis, filamentis ciliatis apice sagittatis, antheris muticis biporis,
 soliis ovalibus integerrimis acuminatis serrugineo-nervosis.
- Habitat in Napalia, storens capsulisque onusta Martio usque ad Jvnium. Nomen Sagechu et Sheabogi.
- Remuli teretes, nitidi, glabri, castanei, tenelli leviter compressi resinoso-

punctulati, pubescentes.

- Folia approximata, patentia, sparsa, coriacea, cuspidulato-acuminata, basi rotundato-acuta integerrima, levissimé undulata, magnitudine varia, tri-ad quadripollicaria, utrinque conspersa pilis serrugineis adpressis bievibus, præcipue juxta ramisicationes vasorum, nervis approximatis suboppositis reticulatim anastomos nibus. Junniorum ramorum et sloralia lanceolata, sesquipollicaria.
- Petioli vix unguiculares, pilofuli, suprá canaliculation
- Racemi sex ad actopollicares, adscendentes, basi soliis aliquot storalibus villosis stipati. Pedunculus sublignosius, leviter angulatus, interdum punctis resinosis conspersus. Pedicelli silisormes, unguiculares vel infiá villosuli, basi braceola. lanceolata patente decidua.
- Flores copiosis approximati albi, magni, cernui, inodori, pilis argenteosulgentibus adpressis.
- Calyx urceolatus, coriaceus, glabriusculus, laciniis lanceola is acutis patulis, nervosis.
- Corolla semipollicaris, levissimé quinquesulcata, base angustata, sauce parum contracta, laciniis ovatis acutis patulis.
- Filamenta capillaria villis albis barbata, basi dilatata, apice infra antheram utrinque dente patulo deorsum spectante, inde subsagittata. Antheræ ovato-oblongæ, muticæ, apice poro gemino obliquo dehiscentes.
- Ovarium glabrum, quinquecarinatum. Stylus Stigmaque ut in antece... dente.
- Capsula susceptibles de la calyculata, Gaertn. Carp. I. 304. t. 63.
- Observation. The leaves of this elegant tree vary considerably in size and form, from lanceolate to broad ovate, becoming almost cordate, more or less acuminate. They are of a firm and leathery texture, perfectly entire and without glands. The arbutus described by my esteemed friend Colonel Hardwicks in his tour to Sirie

magur (Affat. Research. vi. p. 360. A. herpeticus, Ms. Guil. Roxb.) of which with his usual liberality I have been favored with the original drawing, is exceedingly like my tree. It differs however besides having a berry while the pericarp of mine is decidedly a capsule, in its leaves wanting the coloured rib, and the racemes being much shorter. Indeed if I could suppose the attribute of a Berry to have been sounded on a slight mistake in the examination of the unripe seed vessel, I would venture to consider them as one and the same plant.

Since writing the above my effected friend Dr. Govan, Superintendent of the Botanic Garden at Saharunh me has favored not with the following observations on this interesting tree and with specimens which he gathered on the confines of Chinese Tartary. " Your Andromeda ovalifolia occurs first on the hills between Asim and Subhatoo at an elevation (by Barometer) of about 3005 and continues to that of 8000 feet after which it becomes very rare and foon disappears entirely. It is called by the fame ...ame as the species of Sirmagur, Alaar or Airee and grows to a tree of 20 to 40 feet in height; the bark of the stem and older branches much cracked and rough, that of the former almost juberose. The middle rib of the leaf is coloured, sometimes buniceous; by drying both that and the nerves become terringineous. With regard to its use the same opinion prevails here as in Sirina. gur, an infusion of the bruised leaves in water being considered a specific against cutaneous complaints of an herpetic nature both in the human species and in cattle; its operation is said to be attended with confiderable pain. Sheep and Goats eat the leaves which, when young, are faid to produce foporific and deleterious effects on them * When used as huer they are said to destroy insects in the stalls of the cattle. Excellent timber is so plentiful where this tree is found that its wood is only used for burning."

^{*} Mr. Garduer informs me that a similar notion prevails in Napal,

"I fend you specimens of a very marked variety if not a distinct species which, if adopted, I propose calling A. cordata. It grows intermixed with your ovalifalia and exposed to similar external circumstances, and yet it preserves constantly its distinguishing character which consists in its leaves being much broader in proportion to their length, almost always condate at the base, of a considerably more leathery texture and always longer than the racemes. In other respects, in habit, size, native name and uses the trees correspond exactly."

Andromeda fassigiata. Walk

Fruticulus repens adscendens, ramis tetragonis sastigiatis, soliis sessilibus quadrifarie imbricatis adpressis lanceolato-sagittatis lateribus revolutis dorso canaliculatis, sloribus axillaribus solitariis subnutantibus campanulatis, silamentis apice sagittatis, antheris biporis pendulis.

E. Gossain-Than Napalize misst Dom. E. GARDNER; e. consinibus Tartarize chinensis G. Govan, M. D.

Nomen Napal. Naba.

Fruticulus palmaris ad dodrantalem basi nuda repens. Romi suboppositi simplices, stricti, fastigiati, 2-ad 6-pollicares, villosuli teretes, propter soliola ubique imbricata tetragoni.

Folia decussatim opposita, coriacea, gibbos, bilinearia, circumdata membranula ciliata apice in ligulam producta, lucida, lateribus supra dorsum villosulum revolutis.

Pedunculi solicarii, unissori, folio duplo fere longiores, subclivati, villos. basi squamulis aliquot imbricatis ovatis.

Flos parvus, albus, nutans, glaber.

Calyx 5-partitus laciniis lanceolatis acutis membranaceo marginatis.

Corolla calyce duplo longior, limbo 5 fido patenti, lacinis ovatis obtufis. Filamenta capillaria apice aristis duabus descendentibus curvis capillaceis

anthera ovata apice bipora longioribus.

Ovarium depresso-globosum, sulcatum, nectario circumdatum annuliformi obsoleté crenato, bases filamentorum adfigente. Stylus columnaris staminibus parum longior.

Capfula globosa calyce perfistente brevior, 5-locularis, 5-valvis.

Observation. This elegant small species approaches to A. cricoides. It forms a compact adicending thrub, which at first fight may easily be mistaken for a heath. The branches are exactly four-fided, mostly undivided, though fometimes fending forth one or two small branchlets from their base; they are straight and all of the same height. The leaves are of a dark green shining colour; when they become old they affume a brownish hue and at length fall off, leaving the lower part of the branches and the whole creeping flem naked, They have a very peculiar conformation; the back being convex and gibbous with a deep longitudinal furrow owing to the fides being turned backward over it. Their internal furface, or that which is closely adpressed to the branch is flat and surrounded with a thin ciliated or lacerated membrane which clongates at the apex of the leaf into a fetaceous point covering the fagittate base of that next above, and entering its dorsal surrow. Flowers few at the top of the branches, white, about four lines long, nodding.

Andromeda? formola. Wall.

Arborea, paniculis terminalibus racemosis nuois, corollis ovalis secundis cernuis, filamentis pubescentibus, antheris utrinque longitudinaliter dehiscentibus dorso aristis duabus descendentibus, soliis oblongis acuminatis serrulatis.

Habitat in Napalia, florens cum præcedente.

Nomen Newar. Sheabogee; Parbutt. Chemala.

Arbor mediocris, ramis teretibus fuscis laevibus cicatricatis subfascicu-

latis:

- Folia versus summitates valde numerosa approximata parentia quadriad sex-pollicaria, coriacea, sirma, utrinque glaberrima, in acumen gracile desinentia, basi acuta, margine incrassato serraturis parvis regularibus notata, suprà lucida, subtus costà valde elevatà crassa nervis copiosis gracilibus, venisque pulcherrimé reticulatis.
- Petioli crassi, semipollicares, suprà sulcati, sæpe rusescentes vel ierra-
- Panicula terminalis et ex axillis foliorum supremorum, hisce duplo longior, erecta, pedunculata, ovata, densa, constans racemis erectis subadpressis sessis subadpressis sessis supremorum, hisce duplo longior, erecta, pedunculata, ovata, densa, constans racemis erectis subadpressis sessis sessis supremorum, hisce duplo longior, erecta, pedunculata, ovata, densa, constans racemis erectis.
- Pedunculi sublignosi, angulati pubescentes, leviter glaucescentes. Pedicelli unguiculares puberuli, basi sussulti bracticolà lanceolatà, adque medium duabus aliis minoribus.
- Flore, cernui, albi, inodori, glabri.
- Culyx coriaceus, quinquepartitus, laciniis lanceolatis acutis, punctis refinofis adipersus.
- Corolla ampla, ventricoso-ovata, calyce triplo longior, ninda, lacirebrevissimis recurvatis subrenisormibus obtusis.
- Filamenta crassa, subulata, puberula, dimedium corollæ vix atrogentia.

 Antheræ aurantiacæ, oblongæ, loculis apice basique solutis, dorso subgibboso ad insertionem silamenti utrinque auctæ aristis duabus capillaribus antheram dimidiam superantibus arcuatis apice convergenubus,
- Ovarium globosum, laeve, basi cinctum annulo carnoso obsoleto. Stylus stigmaque priorum.
- Observation.' This beautiful tree comes near to A. japonica and some other species with panicled racemes, it differs however specifically from them all. Its slowers are extremely copious forming dense-terminal bunches of an elegantly oval form. The leaves are of



-Cametheria Transantilsima

a peculiarly firm and leathery texture, beautifully reticulated below, with the margin finely ferrated from the very base almost to the end of their tapering point. They are persectly smooth measuring an inch or an inch and a quarter in breadth.

It is not unlikely that this tree may prove to be a kind of Arbutus, the corol feeming to partake more of the character of that genus than of Andromeda. Not having yet feen the fruit I am unable to decide this question.

Gaultheria fragrantissima. Well.

Ramis slexuosis, soliis ovato-lanceolatis serratis utrinque acutis subbifariis glabris subtus resinoso-punctatis, racemis exillaribus solitariis solia æquantibus ovariisque incano-pubescentibus.

Habitat in Napalia; florens Aprili.

Nomen Sheaboogi.

Frutex ramis rigidis fuscis teretibus leviter angulatis, junioribus pubescentia incana vestitis.

Folia alterna, interstitiis duplo longiora, patentia, coriacea, firma, tripollicaria, lanceolata vel ovato-lanceolata, serrulata, marginibuz
subrevolutis, suprá lucida, subtus pallida punctis copiosis resmosis
elevatis purpurascentibus notata, costá sub-carinatá nervis inferioribus suboppositis totam sere folii longitudinem excurrentibus,
reticulato-venosa.

Peliali brevissimi, crassi, profunde sulcati.

Rucemi erectiusculi sessiles graciles multissori pubescentes.

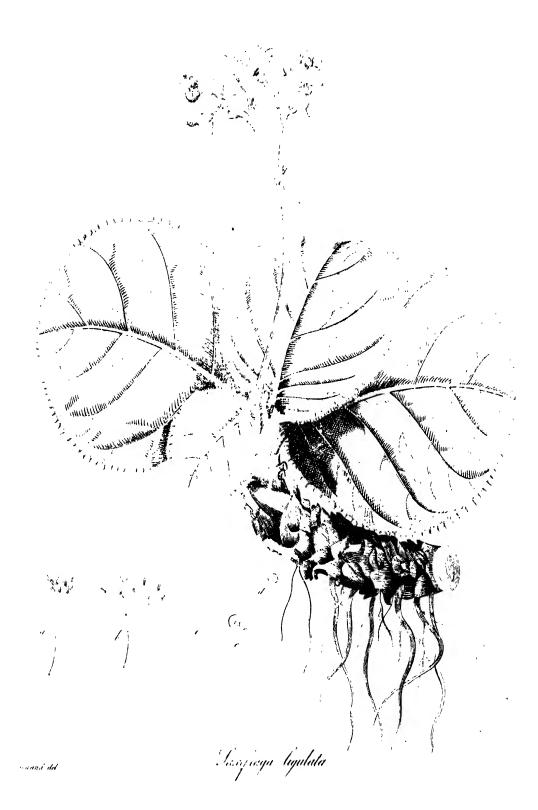
Pedunculus substexuosus; pedicelli teretes vix lineas duas longi basi suffulti bractea lanceolata canaliculata patenti apiceque infra calycem aliis duabus oppositis ovato-cordatis amplexantibus concavis, acutis patentissimis.

Flores secundi, nutantes, suavcolentes.

- Calyx fubturbinatus laciniis ciliatis acutis patentibus.
- Corolla subovata, calyce duplo longior, leviter angulata, extus glabra, intus pilosula.
- Filamenta planiuscula, puberula, brevia. Antheræ suscessiones, erectæ, conniventes, loculis terminatis cornu copillaceo surcato.
- Ovarium planum villosum, circumdatum annulo carnoso obsoleto fublobato. Stylus columnaris brevis. Stigma obtusum.
- Observation. This elegant shrub agrees so well with the character and habit of Gaulteria, as they have been defined by the celebrated author of the prodromus floræ Novæ Hollandiæ (vol. i. 558) that I hesitate not referring it to that genus. Not only the slowers but the leaves also partake of a very aromatic sragrance, which the plant retains a considerable time even after it has been dried; the plant might therefore be used at Napal, as G. procumbens is said to be employed in Canada, as an improver of inferior sorts of Tea. I have not yet had any opportunity of examining its fruit, which I am informed is eat by the Napalese.

Saxifraga ligulata Wall.

- Radice carnosa horizontali squamosa, foliis crassis rotundatis s. obovatis brevissimé petiolatis vaginisque ligulatis ciliatis, scapo brevi unibracteato, panicula terminali surcata, petalis calyce duplo longioribus.
- Habitat in monibus Napalize et Bengalze orientalis, slorens Januario et Februario.
- Nomen Khasianum Atia Torong sing. Napalensibus Schanpe-Soah.
- Madix cylindrica, pollicem circiter crassa, susca, intus laetissimè rusescens, pedalis et ultra, indivisa, lignoso-carnosa, solida, obsita bracties (rudimentis vaginaram) magnis nigricantibus irregularibus patentibus emarcidis, deorsum emittens sibras longas teretes subsimplices.



- Folia omnia radicalia, plana, terræ incumbentia, obtusissima, indivisa, basi leviter angustata, ad insertionem petioli retusa, crenato-dentata, dentibus crenisque ciliis longis pallidis inæqualibus terminatis, palmaria ad pedalia, uti omnes plantæ partes laevia, carnosa, ad lentem punctata, suprá saturaté vir dia, dum juniora purpurascentia, subtus pallida, costà valde robussa latâque, nervis prominentibus suboppositis surcatis, ad marginem reticulatis, avenia.
- Petiolus valde craffus, cylindricus, lineas duas ad fex longus, infertus dorfo vaginæ laxæ membranceæ in ligulam magnam petiolo duplo longiorem erectam bilobaro ciliato-barbatam definentis.
- Scapus crassus, cylindricus, rusescens, pedalis, apice semel bisve furcatus.
- Brastes ovata, acuta, adnata, ciliata, laxa, pollicaris, infra bifurationem feapi, decidua.
- Flores magni, albicantes vel rosei, modori, pedunculau, congesti in paniculam terminalem compactam subracemosam nudam leviter nutantem.
- Pedunculi teretes, crassi, rusescentes; Pedicelli vix unguiculares.
- Calyx ovatus coloratus, profunde quinquefidus; laciniæ ovatæ, obtufæ, eredæ, leviter ciliatæ.
- Pelila subrotundo-ovata, unguicularia, basi in unguem brevem angustata, calyci intus inserta, lacimisque ejus alternantia.
- Filamenia subulata, calyci inserta, patentia, quorum quinque petalorum longitudine laciniis calycinis opposita; quinque illis alternantia et breviora, petalis opposita. Antheræ ovatæ, erectæ, utrinque longitudinaliter dehiscentes, rubicundæ.
- Ovarium superum prosundé bipartitum, seu potuis ovaria duo oblongoovata convexa latere interiori plana lineâ longitudinali exsculpta,
 unilocularia, polysperma. Ovula valde numerosa adfixa placentæ oblongæ carnosæ paginæ interiori lineæ islæ longetudinali
 correspondenti insertæ. Styli duo, longitudine silamentorum
 majorum, crassi semiteretes, divaricato-patentes. Ligmata car-

nosa, subrenisormia, mucosa, viridia

Observation. I received this ornamental plant in the beginning of 1818 from Mr. Edward Gardner, the Resident at Katmandu, and from Mr. Smith, my assistant at Sylhet. I have since had a great number of roots from both places which are thriving very well in the Botanic Garden at Calcutta.

There are, it appears, two varieties; one with almost pure white, the other with more or less pink-coloured blossoms, which gradually change into each other sometimes even on one and the same plant, and which added to the large, shining thick-leaves give the species a very beautiful appearance. The young leaves are of purplish or brownish colour and stand somewhat cress.

Blackwellia spiralis. Wall.

- Folis cunciformi-obovatis, glandulofo-dentatis, subtus pubescentibus, spicis axillaribus solitariis longissimis nutantibus, sloribus subpentandris.
- Habitat in Pegu. In horte botanico Calcuttæ floret mensibus Augusto-Decembre.
- Arbor magna, ramolissima, trunco recto, cortice glabro cincreo deciduo. Rami longissimi, teretes, glabri, calloso-punctati, penduli.
- Foita alterna, subbisarii, petiolata, palmaria et majora, cuneisormia v. obovata, coriacea, apice rotundata cum acumine lato obtuso, bast attenuata, remoté et obtusissimé dentata, sinubus inter dentes incrassatis glandulosis, suprá glabra, subtus costà nervisque prominentibus pubescentibus.

Petioli crassi, brevissimi, pubescentes, suprá plani.

Stipulæ lanceolatæ v. lineares, caducæ.

Spicæ nudæ, indivisæ gracillimæ cylindricæ, folia æqvantes, post deflorationem elongatæ, nutantes, brevissimé pedunculatæ, villis copiosis brevibus canis vestilæ. Raches teres, gracilis, sublignosa,



- fpiralis.
- Flores parvi, fessiles, 6 ad 10 dispositi in glomerulos densissimos spiræ in modum circum rachin ordina oc, elengatione spiræ remotiusculos. Bractea parva lanceolata dicidua infra omnes glomerulos, aliaque minuto infra singules slores.
- Perianthium 10 v. 12-phyllum, patentissimum, radiatum; soliola minima, villosa, ciliata, albicantia, acuta: exteriora 5 v. 6 linearia; interiora subspathulata, illis parum latiora.
- Filomenta 5 v. 6 glabra, capillaria, perianthio longiora, foliclis ejus interioribus opposita, patertia. Antheræ suscess, ovatæ, didymæ, utrinque dehiscentes, glabras.
- Natura tot quat stamina cumque illis alternantia, carnosa, sessilia, sub-rotueda, majuscula, autantiaca, villosa.
- De reium semiinserum, turbicatum, villosum, intra perianthium ovatoacutum, angulatum, uniloculare, loculo magno lineis duabus vel tribus parietelibus notato, ovalis pluribus sateribus gregatim adfixis, cybridicis pendulis.
- Styre ino, e basi laté intus sulcatà (persistente?) divergentes, subulati.

 Silgmata minuta, globosa.
- Offernition. This handfome tree sprung up accidentally from earth which was received from Pegu in 1811, and has since grown to a considerable size, with numerous long and stender pendulous branches which it emits from the base almost of the stem. It has blossomed freely during the three last years without shewing any disposition to produce fruit. In general habit as well as in the peculiarly setid intell of the slowers it is exactly like Ludia sociida, Roder Mise, a species of Homelium, which the doubts of Justicu, Willdenow and the author of that article in Rees' new Cyclopædia seem to require should be united with Blackwellia. The parts of the slower are in that tree more numerous and the stamens sascicled. It has for many years blossomed abundantly without

once producing any fruit. *

Blackwellia tomentosa, Vent. which I know only from Point's Supplement to the Encycl. botanique. i. 640, seems to be a distinct species from that described above.

Clematis smilacifelia. Wall.

- Scandens, foliis simplicibus ovato-cordatis, petiolis acirrhatis, racemis axillaribus paucisloris elongatis.
- Habitat in montibus Bengalæ orientalis pro pe Sylhet, ubi vocatur Boeghandi; inque Napalia. Floret initio anni.
- Frulex volubilis, ope petiolorum scandens, omnibus partibus glaberrima, ramis graculibus etongatis sulcatis striatis suscis articulatis.
- Folia opposita, longé petiolata, integerrima, acuta, quinquepollicariaad palmaria, subcoslacea, quinquenervia, transversim reticulatovenosa
- Pelioli teretes, graciles, suprà planiules, a basi delatari, longitudine solii, hine inde torti, absque ullis circlic.
- Racemi oppositi, sollis duplo triplove longiores, sloribus longé-pedunculatis oppositis majusculis.
- Pedunculi striati; partiales quadripollicares, patentes.
- Bracleæ infra Lugulum par pedunculorum oppositæ, lanceolotæ, subcuneatæ, semipollicares. Aliæ interdum infra medium singuli pedunculi partialis oppositæ, lineares, recurvatæ.
- Perianthis foliola quatvor, patentia, demum reflexa, oblonga, acria, unguicularia, cralla, extus ferrugineo-villosa, striata, intus glabra violacea.

Petria mulla.

^{*} The writing this I have received specimens from Napal of, a tree which, together with that described here, belong to Homalinus and probably form two new species of Astronthus Lou, as suggested by Mr. Robert Brown in Tuckey's narrative of the expedition to the river Cango, Append. p. 438.





- Stamina numerosssima, patentia, silamentis apice subulatis nudis. Antherarum locula linearia, utrinque adnata.
- Pifilla copiosa, erecta, staminibus breviora; villoso-barbata, receptaculo elevato piloso insidentia.
- Capfulæ numerosæ, fuscæ, compressæ, falcatæ, margine incrassatæ, sparsé pilosæ, apice incurvatâ sensim desinente in setam gracillimam bipollicarem plumosam.
- Funiculus brevis, filiformis, apici loculamenti bine applicatus. Coet: ut in Clemati Vitalba. Gærtn. Carp. i. 353 t. 74.
- Observation. This species is sufficiently distinct from all its congeneres and requires no surther detail. Its elegant leaves, the dark brown velvet perianth, and the numerous yellow stamens contribute to render it a very beautiful plant.

Menispermum Cocculus.

Perenne volubile et seundens, foliis cordatis, basi truncatis sirmis sucidis. Mss. Gul. Royburgii.

Nat/j tam f. Batta-Valli, Rheed. Mal. vII. 1. tab. 1.

Taha baccifera, Rumph. Amb. v. 35. tab. 22.

Tuha flava, ibid. 38 tab. 24?

Menispermum Cocculus. Linn. Mat med. n. 175. (exclus: synon. Pluckenetii) Gaertn. Carp. i. 219. tab. 70.

Menispermum lacunosum. Lam. Encycl. Bot. Iv p. 98.

Menil ermum slauescens. Lam. ibid?

Cissampelos Cocculus. Poiret. ibid v p. 9 (exclusis plurimis synon.)

Habitat in Malabari; Amboin, Celebe, etc. In hortum botanicum Calcuttæ introluctum a cel. B. Heyne. M. D.

Frutex magna s. potius arbuscula, volubilis et supra arbores ope basium petiolorum cirrhatorum laté scandens, ramosissima, frondosissima, sempervirens.

- Radix crassa, lignosa, ramosa; intus slaua, lacunosa; vetussior cortice suberoso obtecta.
- Truncus crassus, cylindricus, cortice vestitus suberoso molti rimis plutimis parvis notato cinereo, basi emittens stolones radicantes, plures orgyas longas; apice soliosas, tenellas purpurascentes. Rami longissimi, teretes, glabri, sordidé grysei, penduli; juniores uti omnes reliquie partes laevissimi, pallidi, glaucescentes.
- Elia sparsa, petiolata, patentia, ramulorum valde approximata, amplissima, dodrantalia et ultra, coriacea, sirma, subrotundo-ovatu obtusa v. acutiuscula, apice cum mucrone decidud margineque integerrimo recurvatis, basi leviter cordata, vel subtransversa, semper ad insertionem petioli levissime emarginata, supra atroviridia lucida, inter vasa in bullas latas transversales elevata; subtus concava glauca, sursure parco adspersa, septem-v. quinque-nervia, costà basi integrà nervisque extrossum ramoss valde prominencibus carinatis, venis gracilibus horizontalibus, suchus vas forum, præcipue anillis nervorum glandadoso-excavatia, ad preginam inferiorem solii villorum acervuso norasis, ad superiorem elevatis. Folia adulta, præprimis eorum vasa slavesventia; juniora ovata, acuta, coloris lætissimè viridic.
- Peloli graciles, teretes, lignosi, suprà leviter sulcati, solla lengiodine aquantes, juniores duplo et plus breviores, apice incurvá tumidi, basi valde incrassatà pollicari varis hine inde terti, cin hati.
- Stibu'w nullæ, nec carum vestigium.
- Inflorescentia soeminea. Racemi oblongi, lani, penduli, numeroli, 4 v. plures sasciculati, raro solitarii, ex ipso trunco ramisque vetustioribus, pedunculati, compositi, pedules bipedalesque. Racemate sparsi, subsessibiles digitum circiter long, cylindrici, patentissimi, nov adscedentes (ratione pedunculi universalis recurvati.)
- Pedunculus bafi nudus, teres, incrassatus, extrorsum leviter angulosus; partiales graciles, striati: omnes subcarnosi, laeves, lactescentes,

insertione leviter intumescentes et subarticulati.

- fiusculi, leneas duas longi, basi medioque bracteola una duabusve minutis ovatis acutis emarcescentibus instructi. Similes bracteola ad insertionem racemuli singuli, uti priores valde decidue.
- Perianthium petaloideum, hexaphyllum, recurvatum, cossivatione imbricatum; foliola lanceolata acuta duplici ordine disposita, aqualia. Foliola alia 1-v. 2. rarius 3, minima, bracteiformia (calyx?) latoovata v. oblongata, obtusa, basi sloris adpressa, hujus foliolis alternantia, cumque illis decidua.
- Ovaria tria, rarius quatuor, crecta, subulato-ovata, dorso gibbosa, contigua, perianthii foliolis interioribus alterna, hisque breviora, uni-locularia, monosperma; ovula oblonga, teretia, sursum adfixa, pendula. Stigmasa sessibilita, subulata, acuta, cornosa, rugosa, recurvata, mucosa.
- Nelluria f. rudimenta staminum 8 v. 10, basin ovariorum ambientia; patentia, carnosa, cylindrica, truncata, intequalia, minima... Inflorescentia mascula haud visa.
- Differentian. The following is an extract from the late Dr. Roxburgh's valuable manufeript. "There is no figure in Rhebde's or Rumphius' works which I can quote for this famous plant: nor indeed in any book known to me, except that of Gabriner and that extends only to the fruit. It is a native of Malabar, from thence feeds were fent to the Botanic Garden at Calcutta in 1807. In 1812 the plants reared from these were sufficiently large to extend over a considerable Mango tree, having stems as thick as a man's wrist, covered with deeply cracked spongy ash-coloured bark: the young shoots smooth and green. Leaves alternate, very exactly cordate, entire, apex obtuse or emarginate, of a hard texture, such a to 12 inches long, by 3 to 8 inches broad. I cannot say

66 any thing of the natural character, as our plants have not yet 66 bloffomed."

One of the four individuals alluded to in this extract bloffomed for the first time towards the close of 1816, and while I write this (in December of the following year) both that and another female somewhat smaller shrub are covered from the base of the stem along the principal branches with innumerable fascicles of pendulous racemes, which give them a very stately appearance. The smell of the flowers spreads to a great distance and being very powerful is offensive in the immediate vicinity of the shrub, not unlike that of the common Berkerry and Lawfonia. is ligneous and very branchy, porous and of a deep yellow colour within, possessing a peculiar, strong and nauseous smell, and like all the tender parts of the plant a bitter take. The principal branches of the root are covered with a spongy cracked bark. The circumference of the trunk measures at present between sourteen and seventeen inches. The old leaves especially their tibs and nerves are yellowish.

The mistake of Poiret in uniting Cissimpeles Pareira, Caspeba and other plants with Menispermum Cocculus L. in the continuation of Lamarch's Encycl. Botanique, v. p. 9. has been adverted
to by the illustrious author of the articles Menispermum and
Cissampelos in Rees' new Cyclopædia.—Lamarch (l. c. iv. p. 96.)
cites Rumphius' Tuba baccitera with some doubt as a variety,
or perhaps the semale plant only of his M. tuberculatum (Roxburgh's
M. verrucosum, see Fleming in Asiat. Research: xi. p. 171); and
two pages further on, he forms it into a distinct species, which he
calls M. lacunosum, and which is the same as M. Cocculus. I am
surprised that neither Rheede's nor Gaert ner's works have been
quoted under this head. The same great botanist establishes a
separate species on Rumphius' Tuba slava and calls it M. slavescens,

(1. c. p. 98,) having previously remarked, with great propriety, that it comes very near to the Tuba baccifera. I have ventured to quote both these plants of Rumphius as synonymes: because though his descriptions of their flowers and fruits seem to differ, yet they agree persectly in other respects and the leaves of the shrub which is described above, varying from almost orbicular obtuse to ovate-condate, more or less acute, unite in them the characters of both those plants.

RHEEDE'S figure of the leaves is a pretty exact representation of those of my plant; and agrees better with the description in the Herbarium Amboinense than Rumphius's own plates do, notwith-standing the remark of this last mentioned author to the contrary.

I have not been able to identify this plant with the Sanscrita name of it, Cácámāri, given by Dr. W. Ainslin, in his excellent Materia medica of Hindooflan, pag. 81; nor have my hopes of fucceeding in tracing the name Cocculus to the Sanscrita Cácoli and Kacola been realised; one of these latter belonging to an innoxious bulbous 1001, the other to an aromatic fruit, which certainly is not that of the plant in question. My worthy friend, the Reverend Dr. WILLIAM CAREY, informs me that one of his pundits, a native of Malabar, to whom he shewed the fruit which I had procured of the Meni/permum, recognifed it immediately as being produced in vast abundance on that coast, where it is called Garala phala, or the poison fruit, also Cácamari, from the circumstance of the natives, especially the Christians who, he says, feed on crows, making use of it to kill them. They bruise the fresh or even unripe feeds and mix them with boiled rice into a paste which is laid about for the crows and infallibly kills all that eats of it. He adds, that a large fruit of another kind, to which the name Kakamári is given, is used for the same purpose, but only intoxicates the crows, fo that they may be easily taken. I understand that these seeds are employed about Calcutta for catching fish and killing crows, but I have only been able to meet with them in a single native shop, where they were sold to me under the name of Bucaen-ka-phal, probably from their fancied likeness with the fruit of a kind of Melia (Melia sempervirens, in Sanscrita Mahanimba) which goes by that name. Cácamari and Garala phala are both segitimate Sanscrita words, though they are not to be met with in any of the distionaries or medical writings of the Hindoos consulted on this occasion.

Since writing the above Mr. Murpoen Brown of Anjarakandy has favored me with the following account, in reply to several queries which I took the liberty to propose to him relative to this interesting shrub.

- "The Ceculus Vine is indigenous in Malabar and Canara, and grows in the interior of most parts of those provinces, but most luxuriantly in South Malabar and Travancore. I have never feen it wild within less than ten miles of the Sea, though I have planted it within half a mile, where it grew vigorcuity and produced fruit. Here (at Tellicherry) it grows to an immense fize, overtopping the highest forest trees and by its wiry hard tendrils catches hold of the branches of the adjacent trees and thus creeps from one to another to an astonishing distance from the parent root. When in blossom all these various branches as well as the parent stem are thickly covered with large bunches or grapes, which asterwards yield a surprising quantity of the Berries."
 - "The natives make no use of the roots either in medicine or for dying, to far as I have been able to learn."
 - " One of the largest of my planted Vines, about 15 years old measures 21 inches round at about a foot and a half from the ground. Last year (1817) they began to put forth their slow-

"the 10th of October. The flowering branches shoot from the trunk of the Vine and also from the wood of the large branches.

"The flowers are succeeded by small white berries, to the number of 2 and 300 on a bunch, which continue slowly to increase in size until the commencement of March, when they begin to acquire a purple colour, not all together, but successively, and fall off, when they have become of a bright purple, one by one, as each berry attains maturity. The birds also carry off great numbers in this state; a circumstance which leads the natives to gather them before they begin to change colour, and consequently before the kernel has acquired the oily part, which constitutes its value as a poisonous drug."

"I have never heard that the drug was put to any other use but that of a vermisuge on black cattle and horses, and for killing or rather stupisying sish, so as to make them float on the surface and be easily caught. What is carried from hence to Arabia and Persia, is as I have been assured, used for the same purposes. It is probable that when fresh it would also kill rats and crows: indeed it is used with that intention in some parts; but having never seen this done I cannot therefore speak to its effects. In Canara I have met with a kind of wax made of its kernels freed from their husks, used for burning in Lamp."

"The proper name in Malabar is Nanja Cooras (Poison Berry), but it is more generally known to traders and the common people by the name of Polla Kay (light or imperfect fruit) from its being gathered before maturity, the kernel not having acquired its proper fize to give the Berry weight. In Canara it is named Garala Phala, but whether that be the Sanscrit name I cannot say: Caca-mari or Kill-crow, is the Dukhani name, and probably derived from the use that is made of it."

There is no prohibition to its exportation here 1 and the demand is inconfiderable. The Arabs still take away a few candies (about 670 lbs.) of it annually. The price in England is fo low that it will hardly pay freight, though some years ago. It large quantities were sold there at a high price."

Note by the Secretary.

There are several Sanscrit terms familiarly known on this side of India, which might be supposed to refer to the Cocculus indicus, but which on examination prove to have nothing in conformity with it except the sound. That amongst these, the words Cácolí and Caccola are affixed to very different Substances, as is noticed by Dr. Wallich, will perhaps be most satisfactorily shewn by the sollowing account of them, extracted from original authorities.

Cácolí. The Hindus enumerate in their medical works a class of eight subflances, which they denominate the Ashta verga or class of eight: they are all roots, and appear to come chiefly from Nepal and the countries skirting the Himalaya mountains; their properties are suppoled to correspond, and they may be employed either separate-Iv or collectively, as remedies in a great variety of morbid conditions; their general virtues are thus detailed: They are cool, Iweet, fattening, and aphrodifiac, promotive of digestion, sanative, lactiferous and tonic; they are corrective of the vitiated humors or wind, bile, and blood, curative of fever, and of great efficacy in urinary and phthisical affections. They are severally named Jivaca, Rifnabha Meda, Mahameda, Cacoli, Chira Cacoli, Biddhi, and Vriddbi: they are probably tonic medicines of fome power and at least merit surther investigation; the substance amongst these termed Cácolí, is generally connected with the one subsequent to it in the above list, or (shira Cácoli, and they are thus described

¹ Mr. W. Haring'on, Collector of Customs at Mairas informs me, that a very heavy duty has been laid upon the ding, amounting almost to a prohibition.

in the Bhava Pracasa: These two drugs, are procured from Morung, and the adjacent districts. Cshira Cacoli resembles the root of the Pivari (Asparagus racemosus), and is of a white colour, a fragrant smell, and sull of a milky sap. The Cacoli is of similar form and character, but of a dark hue. They are both sweet and cooling, they remove sever, and correct a vitiated state of the blood and bile: the root of the Vidári (Convulvulus paniculatus) and the Aswagandha (Physalis slexuosa), are severally substitutes for the Cácoli and Cshira cácoli.

Caccola or Caccolaca. This substance is always classed amongst the perfume, and forms one of the ingredients in different aromatic compositions, along with agallochum, frankincense, camphor, musk, saffron, spices, and other similar articles. It is procuerd in the bazar in different degrees of freshness, and is a berry of a more or less irregularly oval form: when freshest it is invested with a thick green sebaceous and fragrant coat, but in a more advanced state, this fluinks so as to be scarcely discernible from the shell which 19 of a greyish colour; in either state the centre is filled with a refinous inflammable fubfiance, of a firong and spicy odour soluble but very sparingly in water, and more abundantly in spirit. The history of this substance is not given in any of the medical works I have consulted, nor are its character and origin known to any of the native. Druggitts, although used by them in many of their compounds. It appears sometimes to be consounded with Civet, and it is called fo, or Chatasi by the author of the Sabda-Chandrica, a medical vocabulary in Sanscrit with a Bengali translation: if this is, not an error of the author or translator, the berry fold by the druggists cannot be the true Caccol, but I much doubt the accuracy of the interpretation: the fynonimes will all apply to either substance, though they require to be translated out of a metaphorical phraseology: the names given in the SabdaChan:

drica are Cacola, Colaca, Gandhavyácula, Tailafadhana, Caccolaca and Coshaphala of which the two first and fourth, though anomalous formations, appear to relate to the Cola or fruit of the Jujube, to which the Caccola berry may be compared in appearance; Gandhavyácula means distressingly-oderiferous; Tailasadhana either the purifier of oil, or that of which oil is the folvent, and it may be observed that civet is most readily soluble in that menstruum; the last term Cosha phalam, may be rendered the fruit of the scrotum or sheathe, referring either to the part of the animal whence it is extracted, or to the fort of coat by which the berry is invested. The Raja Nighanta and Bhava Pracafa describe the medical properties of Caecola, and state it to be pungent, bitter, warm, and carminative, fweetening the breath, relieving heartburn, exciting appetite and promoting digestion, and remedying morbid affections of wind and phlegm: neither this nor Cácolí therefore are confidered as poisonous, nor can they be consounded with the Cocculus indicus.

The only remaining word which may imply the fruit of the Cocculus vine is to be found in the vocabulaties of Amara and Himachandra, amongst the different kinds of poison: no description however accompanies the name, nor have the different commentators on Amera supplied this desciency, nor illustrated the nature or origin of the substance, by etymological analysis. The word is Cacola; it implies a poison, not of animal origin, and is derived according to Raya Mucuta from the same word Cacola, a raven, from its being of the like dark colour: in this it corresponds sufficiently well with the hue that the Cocculus berry is mentioned by Mr. Brown to acquire when ripe, and being similar to it in its poisonous property, as well in its appellation, it is possible that in this word we have the Sanserit origin of the name given by European writers to the fruit of the Menispermum Cocculus.

REFERENCE TO THE PLATES.

Primula prolifera

- s. peduncle and bracte with the calyx opened;
- b. corolla:
- c. fruit bearing verticil.

Convallaria oppoficiolia.

- a. flower,
- b. ditto opened;
- c. pistillum;
- d. e, sections of evarium; .
- f. berry;
- g. h, fections of the same;
- i feed;
- f g, sections of the same shewing the embryo.

C circhifolia.

- a. b. leaves viewed from both furfaces;
- c. flower,
- d. ditto opened.

Dipline involucrata.

(The letters in this plate have by mistake been engraved as carrials).

- a. flower;
- b duto opened;
- c. pifiillum;
- d. the same with the ovarium opened.

D. cannabina, Lour?

- (Two plates; the last struck off on the common fort of paper manufactured from the bark of that shrub in Napal.)
- a. peduncle with the common receptacle and two detached bractes;

- b. flower:
- c. the same opened;
- d. pistillum, with its hypogynous annular membrane opened is
- e. drupe with part of the withered perianthium attached to its hase:
- f. g, sections of the fruit;
- i. embryo;
- k. cotyledons.
- D. Gardneri.
 - a. flower:
 - b. ditto opened;
 - c. peduncle and receptacle, with a detached bracte 3
 - d. pistillum;
 - e. the same, shewing the pendulous ovalum.

Andromeda lanceolata.

- a. flower;
- b. calyx opened;
- c. corolla, opened;
- D. ovarium divided horizontally.

A. ovalifolia.

- a. flower:
- d. ditto, the corolla removed;
- b. corolla opened;
- c. stamina (augmented).

Gaultheria fragrantissima.

- a. flower:
- b. peduncle and brackes;
- c. calyx and pistillum;
- d. corolla, opened;
- e. stamen (augmented)

Saxifraga ligulata.

- a. flower:
- b. ditto opened;
- c. pirtilla;
- d. one of them fomewhat enlarged;
- e. ovarium divided horizontally.

Blackwellia spiralis.

- a. b, flower viewed from two fides, with a detached bracket
- c. pistillum, shewing the insertion of the ovula; all slightly aug-

Minispermum Cocculus. (Two plates.)

- a. partial raceme, natural fize;
- b. flower,
- c. ditto with its detached leaslets;
- d. peduncle, all the parts of the flower removed except the nectarial leales;
- e. pillilla :
- f. ovaria cut hotizontally;
- g. ditto divided to gradinally.

Account of a new species of TAPIR found in the Peninfula of Malacca, by Major FARQUHAR.—Communicated by the Honorable A. SETON.

101010101

Letter from Major FARQUHAR to the Honorable A. SETON.

My Dear Sir,

Conceiving that the accompanying account of an animal of the Tapir kind, found in the forests in the vicinity of Malicca; but which I believe is not generally known to exist in any part of the old world, may prove interesting, I have taken the liberty to transmit it to you, for the purpose, (should you consider it as meriting public attention), of being presented to the Asiatic Society: I have likewise the pleasure to send a full length drawing of the animal, and a drawing and skeleton of its head, which is of very singular shape.

I remain,

My Dear Sir,
Your much obliged
and very faithful Servant

MALACCA, 29th January 1816.

W. FARQUHAR.

Class Mammalia, order Belluæ.

Generic character.

Seven grinders on each fide in the upper jawa

Six ditto ditto in the under jaw.

Four Cutting-teeth exclusive of tusks in the upper jaw.

Six ditto ditto (four large and two small) teeth in the urder jaw.

Two Tufks (or Canine-teeth) on each fide in the upper jaw, short, distant, obliquely truncate, slightly recurvated, back ones much smaller than those contiguous to the front teeth.

One tulk on each fide in the under jaw more pointed and prominent than those in the upper jaw.

In all twenty-two teeth in the upper, and twenty in the under jaw.

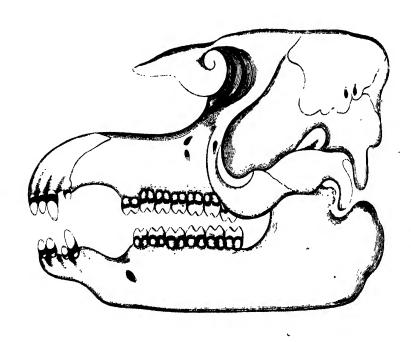
A vacant space of two inches between the grinders and tusks in each jaw, upper jaw projecting about half an inch over the under, and having a thin heart-shaped bone, four inches long, jutting out from the lower part of the sorehead directly over the cavity of the nose.

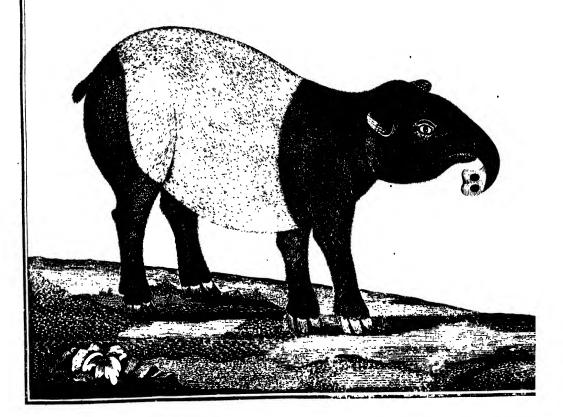
The skull forming a fort of ridge at top.

The back arched.

The fore feet divided into four hoofs the hind feet into three.

The nose of the male extending beyond the lower jaw, between seven and eight inches, forming a snout or proboscis, extensible and slexible.





TAPIR OF MALACCA.

Dimensions of a male TAPLE, as taken at Malacca on the 30th of No. vember, 1815.

Extreme length from the point of the proboscis to the tip of the tail 7 feet.

	•		f. in:
Length of the probolcis,.	•	• •	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Ditto of the head,	. •	•	1 3.
Ditto of the neck, .		h .	8
Dicto of the body, .	•	•	. 4
Ditto of the tail,	• •	•	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Ditto ear,	•	•	6.
Distance between the ears,	٠	•	8
Heighth of the shoulder,	•	•	3 2 .
Ditto middle of the body,	ø	۵	3 4
Ditto at the rump, .	•	•	3
Duto of the hind legs,	•	•	2 3 ;
Ditto of the fore legs,	4	•	1 10.
Circumference of the body,	6	•	6 .
Ditto of the neck, .		•	3 >
Ditto of the head,		•	2 /92
Ditto of the proboscis,	•	•	101

The Tapir (called Tinnoo by the Malays), is an animal, which I believe has hitherto been confidered, by the naturalists as being peculiar, to the new world: it will however appear abundantly evident from the present account, that this is a mistake; and that a species at least of this quadruped, is common to many of the forests on the Malay peninfula, and particularly so in the vicinity of Malacca, being as well known to the natives there as the elephant or rhinoceros.

The TAPIR of Malaeca, although differing in some effential points from that of America, cannot, I conceive, be considered

but as a variety of the same genus of quadrupeds. The principal difference will be sound to consist in the number of teeth and tusks; the Tapir in America according to Linnaus has only son grinders in each jaw, and is without tusks; whilst that of Malacca has sourteen grinding teeth and sour tusks in the lower jaw. Linnaus gives likewise to the American Tapir, ten fore-teeth in each jaw, whereas the Malacca Tapir has only sour in the upper, and six in the lower jaw exclusive of the tusks. Some other naturalists however allow the American Tapir to have tusks single and incurvated. In every other respect the Malacca and American Tapir will I fancy, be found to correspond very nearly, and particularly in that distinguishing character of the proboscis, or snout, which over hangs the lower jaw, from seven to eight inches, extensible and slexible, like that of the elephant and common only to the male.

The manner in which the feet are divided is likewise very peculiar; and is the same in both animals; having four hoofs in the fore, and only three in the hind feet. The general fize and shape of the TAPIR of the old and new world will be found nearly alike, but differing in color; the head of this animal is of a fingular shape, and forms a fort of ridge at top, the eyes are finall, ears roundish and bounded with white, which can be drawn forward at pleasure, the legs are short and very slou', the body large, and in shape somewhat resembling that of the hog. The neck is short and thick, and the skin strong and coarse, like that of the buffallo. The hair is short, and of a black colour, from the proboscis to the extremity of the sour quarters; The body and part of the hind quarters of a light grey, and the rest of the hinder parts and legs are black. The tail is very short, and almost destitute of hair; It has no mane on the neck, in which respect it seems likewise to differ from the American TAPIR;

when young it is beautifully spotted with brown and white.

The Tapir of Malacca is not known to the natives as an amphibious animal; it is perfectly harmless, and of a timid disposition. Indeed it seems destitute of any natural means of offence or desence. It seeds on vegetables, and is said to be particularly fund of sugar-cane. Its sless is eaten by the natives (with the exception of Mohummedans, who deem it unclean) and considered very good: none of these animals have as yet been domesticated at Malacca, but I have no doubt if taken when young, they might be tamed with equal facility as those of America.

The drawing which accompanies this will be found a faithful representation of the Malacca TAPIR. It is taken from life, and will convey a much better idea of the animal than any description I am able to give.

It is, I think, very possible that the Malacca TAPIR may be found to correspond more closely with one of the two sossile species described by Cuvier, in his geological discoveries, as having been met with in different parts of France, Germany, and Italy, the one named the small, the other the gigantic TAPIR.

It may be proper to remark that the foregoing dimensions were taken from a Tapir, which had not attained its full fize; I have the head of a sull grown one now by me which measures two inches more in circumference than the above.

Additional observations by the SECRETARY.

THE discovery of the presence of an animal in the eastern hemisphere, which has been hitherto supposed peculiar to the new world, is a circumstance that deserves the fullest illustration which

the Society can bestow upon it: and it has therefore been deemed advisable, to publish the following additions to the valuable communication of Major Farquhar: the first of these, from the pen of a distinguished pupil of our illustrious associate M. Cuvier, shews satisfactorily, that the animal discovered by Major. Farquhar is essentially the same as the Tapir of South America, and the second from G. J. Siddons Esq. late Resident at Bencoolen, presenting to the Society a living animal of this description, informs us of a sast, which is equally interesting in a geological and zoological view, and proves that the existence of the oriental Tapir is not limited to the Peninsula of Malacca.

Observations by M. DIARD, on the TAPIR of Malacca.

WHEN an error has originated with a distinguished writer it passes long current under his fanction, and is slowly and reluctantly corrected; it is to this circumstance we must attribute the repetition by Linneus, Buffon, Shaw, and other eminent naturalists, of the missake committed by Margrave, when he sirst gave a scientistic description of the Tapir of South America, and who has erroneously afferted, that the animal had but twenty teeth in each jaw; or ten molares, ten incisores, and no dentes canimi: it is not easy to conceive how Margrave, in general so exact, and who had so many opportunities in the Brazils, of examining the living animl, should have fallen into such an error, for the Tapir of America has in the upper jaw 14 grinders, two canine, and six cutting teeth, and in the lower jaw, but 12 grinders, with the same number of canine and cutting teeth as in

the upper; making in the whole forty-two teeth; and upon the most careful examination of the fkull of the TAPIR of Malacca, deposited in the Society's Museum, I can confidently affert that the teeth agree in number, form, and proportion, precifely with those of the American TAPIR. In the upper jaw there is an imperfect evolution of the two canine teeth, and the two outer incifors have all the appearance of tusks, and this accounts for the error in the description, which the excellent naturalist, who has enriched zoology with so important a discovery, has committed; the same missake has indeed been lately made, with respect to TAPIR of America by the learned FELIX D'AZZARA, and it is one of very natural occurrence, as the two outer incifors have the character of tulks, and the more so, from being much more prominent than the true canine teeth; they are easily however diffinguilhed, by the cultivator of comparative anatomy, by their infertion in the bone peculiar to the incifors, (os incifif); an articulation that would leave no doubt of their real character, even in the entire ablence of the dentes canini, and a proof of the value of a science, which determines the nature of parts, by the immutable laws of anatomical position, and not by the uncertain, and varying test of external appearance.

The identity of the Tapir of Malacca, with that of South America makes it of course a different animal, from the small sollile species, described by M. Cuvier, as that has been shewn to differ widely from the American animal, both in the dentition, and in the conformation of many parts of the maxillary bone.

For the correct number and accurate nature of the teeth of the American Tapir, natural science is indebted to Messes. Georgeov St. Hillaire and Cuvier. To Major Farquhar alone belongs the honor of having first given, with the trisling exception I have noticed, a correct description of the interesting animal which

forms the subject of these observations.

I have only to add, that the young male TAPIR which is in the menager e at Barackpore, is in all respects the same, with that described by Major FARQUHAR.

Letter from G. J. SIDDONS Esq. to the SECRETARY to the ASIATIC SOCIETY.

Sir,

I have fent on board the Ship Claudine, commanded by Captain Welsh, a very rare animal called on this Coast the Tannols which I beg you to present to the Asiatic Society in my name.

It resembles, with extreme closeness the Tapir of Buffon. It was presented to me by the Pangeran of Songye Lamowe, who informed me that it was caught in a paddy plantation upon his lands in the interior. Search was made for its parents, but no traces of them were discovered: the people were attracted by the shrill cry of the animal, which they found at the edge of the paddy ground, close to a thicket, amidst very long grass, the Pangeran himself is, perhaps, the oldest man living in these districts: He says that he never saw but one other animal of this description, which was when he was about ten years old, and that he has never heard of one having been seen since, that which he then saw was of the size of a small cow.

The Tannoh eats boiled rice, after it has got cool, grass, leaves &c. It is of a very lazy habit, but perfectly gentle, and loves to bathe, (remaining a very confiderable time under water) and to be rubbed or scratched, which he folicits by throwing

himself down on his side. He has been in my possession almost three months, during which period he has grown considerably, and his skin has changed from a dusky brown, streaked and spotted with white, to its present appearance.

I trust the animal will reach Calcutta alive, when no doubt it will gratify the curious in natural history.

I remain

Sir.

Your very obedient fervant

SUMATRA,
Fort Marlborough
6th Dec. 1816.

G. J. SIDDONS.

The animal described in the letter from Mr. Siddons, is the one alluded to by M. Diard, and is still living in the menagerie at Barackpore: It's habits continue of the gentle and indolent character mentioned in the preceding communication, and it agrees with Major Farquhar's description in every respect, except in its evincing a great fondness for water: it constantly seeks a pool in which it remains immersed the greater part of the day; and not unfrequently dives for a very considerable period, presenting in this respect another analogy to the Tapir of South America.

The following measurements have been recently made of its dimensions.

Extreme length from the point of the probofcis

to the tip of the tail,

Length of the probofcis,

Ditto, head,

neck,

neck,

f. in.

5

1

6

Ditto,	٠	body,		•		•		4	6
Ditto,	•	tail,	ě			•	•		2
Height	at the	shoulder,		•		•		2	9
Ditto,	middle	of the body	,		•		•	3	E
Ditto,	•	rump,	•		•	•		2	
Ditto,	•	fore legs,			•	•		1	8
Ditto,	•	hind legs,			•	•		1	5
Circun	nferenc e	of the body	y ,		•		. .	5	4
Ditto,	•	neck,		•				2	8
Ditto,	•	head,		•	,	•		2	10
Ditto,	•	proboscis,	abo	ut		•	•		7

The following description of a young animal, received subsequently from Mojor FARQUHAR, with some other interesting communications on subjects of natural history, will complete the information we at present possess regarding the oriental Tapir.

The drawing which accompanies the following account of a young TAPIR, and which I have the pleasure of offering to the acceptance of the Asiatic Society, was taken from an animal about four months old, and represents it as of a reddish brown colour. fludded with white spots. It was taken from one I had alive in the house. After it has passed the above period, it begins gradually to change colour until the age of fix months, by which time it has lost all its beautiful spots, and attained the general color of the full grown TAPIR as represented in a drawing I transmitted from hence to the ASIATIC SOCIETY in the beginning of last year. The TAPIR from which the present drawing was made, I preserved alive in the house for upwards of six months, when it died suddenly. I found it an animal possessed of a most mild and gentle disposition. It became as tame and familiar as any of the dogs; about the house, fed indiscriminately on all kinds of vegetables; and was very fond of attending at table to receive bread, cakes, or the like. It seemed very susceptible of cold, notwithstanding the great thickness of its skin, and I think I may venture with great safety to affirm that the TAPIR of Malacca has nothing amphibious in its nature, a character which appears to attach to those of America: indeed the one I reared shewed rather an aversion to water, and in the wild state they are sound to frequent high grounds.

An Account of a new species of a CAMELLIA growing wild at Napal. By N. WALLICH Esq. Superintendent of the Botanic Garden, Calcutta.

Read December 12, 1818.

Among the numerous valuable additions which the Botanic Garden at Calcutta owes to the indefatigable and fuccefsful refearches of the Honorable Mr. GARDNER, are specimens in full blossoms, plants and ripe fruits of the genuine Tea shrub and its nearly allied neighbour, the Camellia. Of te former of these, he informs me, there is only one shrub at Katmandu, growing in the garden of a Cashmeeree, where it ws originally introduced from China while a young plant. It has attained a height of 9 or 10 feet, is rather tall than bushy, being of no great circumference in its branches or stem, but thriving exceed. ingly well, producing abundance of bloffoms and ripe capfules annually, from September to November. Most of the offsets which Mr. GARDNER has caused to be taken from it have unfortunately failed after continuing very vigorous for some time after they had been put in the ground, but as the attempt will be repeated I doubt not, that both the Tea-shrub, and the equally interesting Napal Camellia. will before long be introduced into fuch parts

of the Northern Hindoostan, as may appear best calculated to meir fuccessful cultiva ion. The tree which is the subject of the prefent enquiry was discovered by Mr. GARDNER on the mountains of Sheopore and Chandra-Ghiri, which form the boundaries of the Valley of Katman lu to the North and South, and have been noticed in Kirkpatrick's account of Napal. It grows to a confiderable fize throwing out numerous leafy branches, and producing blossoms during the rainy season, that is from July to October, succeeded by abundance of fruit which ripen in the course of three months. Notwithstanding the conspicuous oiliness of its seeds, the tree does not feem to be used by the natives for any purpose but that of suel. Mr. GARDNER remarks with great justice, that it is so like the genuine Tea both in its leaves and blossoms, as to be easily mistaken for it; the very same observation has been made by Chevalier THUNBERG in his flora japonica, in speaking of his Camellia Safanqua, a circumstance which corrobarates the affinity which exists between these two species. I consider them however as sufficiently distinct from each other, and shall conclude my description of the Napal tree, which I propose calling Camellia Kiffi, the Newar name being Kiffi or Kiffi-South by enumerating the points on which their specific difference appears to me to rest. Mr. GARDNER informs me that, like those of the Sasangua, its leaves acquire on being dried the peculiar fragrance of Tea; and that he intends trying them as an improver of and substitute for the latter, in the manner in which Professor THUNBERG informs us that his tree is used in Jupan.

Camellia Kissi, Wall.

Foliis ovato oblongis attenuato-acuminatis, acu'é serrulatis basi integerrimis, petiolis ramulique novellis villosulis; sloribus axillaribus terminalibusque subternis, stylo brevissimo stigmatibus elongatis, ca dulis trivalvibus trispermis glabris.

Arbor ramosissima, umbrola, cortice ramulorum cinerascente, novellorum petiolifque villosis.-Folia alterna, parentia, approximata, coriacea, ovata, v. ovato-oblonga, tripollicaria, sesquipollicem lata, interdum majora, acumine semipollicari margine convexiusculo, exceptâ bast acutâ, serrulato, laevia, suprâ atroviridia lucida. fubtus pallida, costà elevara, nervisque obsoletis obliquis ad peripheriam anastamosantibus, - Petioli planicusculi, sulco lato exarati, vix ultra lineas duas longi - Flores albi terni, nunc in axillis folita rii v. terminales geminati, sessiles.—Cayx octophyllus, caducus, aestivatione gemmaceus conicus semipollicaris, soliolis ovatis imbricatis concavis coriaceis suscescentibus obtusis cumcuspidula minuta, ad apicem leviter sericeis, exterioribus minoribus.-Petala obovata, retufa, patentissima, basi angustata, semipoli-· icaria, dorso parum sericea.—Stamina octoginta v. plura, petalis parum breviora, cumque illis patentia, filamentis crassis duplici vel triplici serie ad basin con nata in annulum angustum pallidé aurantiacum ovario breviorem.— Intheræ complanito ovatæ, disco carnosæ, utrinque dehiscentes, biloculares. Ovarium subrotundum absoleié triangulare, villis densis sericeis vestitum, trileculare: ovulis in fingulo loculo fex v. pluribus axi insertis. Stylus crassus, brevis, villosus. Stigmata tria filamenta subæguantia, patentia, clavata, intus sulcata, apice papillosa.—Capsula rotundato - triangularis, pollicaris, lignolo-coriacea, trilocularis, nunc bilocularis, trivalvis, valvis lato-ovatis, apice incrassatis marginibus truncatis latis; extus susca subnigricans, glabra; immatura pubescens.—Diffepimenta membranacea, contraria, nuncincompleta v. subobliterata. Semina solitaria grandia, nucamentacea, fusca, gibbosoconvexa, intus planiuscula vertice umbilico parvo notata; unicum reliquis fæpius majus; uno duobusve nunc abortientibus.—Integumentum duplex: externum

crustaceum, fragile; interius tenue, fuscum, lamelloso-membranaceum, venulosum — Receptaculum centrale, triquetrum, apice semina assi, demum liberum. — Albumen nullum. — Embryo semini conformis, hinc gibbosus. — Cotyledones amygdalino carnosæ, valde inæquales, una supra alteram, oleinæ. — Radicula parva conica intra cotyledonum bases excavatas latens, centripeta.

Observation. I have already hinted above at the great affinity which exists between this species and Thunburg's Sasanqua, Flora Japon. 272. t. 30; the latter differs specifically in having blunt and smaller leaves, solitary terminal flowers, a long style and villous capsules; its size is also much larger than that of our plant, which never grows beyond the height of a small tree. The figure of that species in Lord Macartney's Embassy to Chipa, vol. 11. p. 467 agrees better with our plant, but its leaves still want the decided acumen, besides being more deeply servated. The common Japan rose has more firm and shining leaves with stronger servatures, its slowers are much larger and the petals of a leathery thick texture.

On referring to the drawings of the Botanic Garden which were executed in the latter part of 1814, during the Superintendence of my elteemed friend and predecessor Dr. Francis Hamilton (late Buchanan) I find, he has figured a species of Camellia under the name of (hamegota, so called by the natives inhabiting the mountainous countries bordering on Sylhet, from whence it was sent by my indefitigable assistant, Mr. M. R. Smith, who observes in his letter accompanying the specimen, that it grows to the height of about 7 feet, and is covered in December with white fragrant blossoms. I am unable to discover the least difference between that and the Napat plant, and hesitate not considering them as one and the same species.

Since the preceding account was written I have had an opportunity of comparing my plant with the description and figure of Camellia oleifera published by Mr. CLARK ABEL in his interesting journey to the interior of China (p. 174 c. icone, et p. 363). These two species are unquestionable very like each other; that from Napal may however, be distinguished by having larger acuminate leaves, not altogether destitute of nerves and but slightly marked, on their under surface, with elevated dots, which are only observable by means of a powerful lens; its slowers being smaller and its slyle much shorter than that sigured in the plate attached to Mr. Abel's description. The variety mentioned p. 199, has still greater affinity to my tree.

The leaves of the Napal tree have a very strong but transient smell of Tea; but their insusion, possess only to a very slight degree its slavour, owing perhaps as Mr. Gardner justly observes, to the desective manner of gathering and drying them for the trials which he instituted. It has been ascertained by my esteemed stiend that the Napalese extract an oil from the seed of the Kiss by pressure, which is much valued by them as a medicine. The seedlings reared in the botanic garden at Calcutta are thriving very well.

The stem and branches of this tree are subject to the growth of large sessile excrescences, perhaps a species of parasitical sungus, of an oval form and spongy texture which are said to be very poilonous. They have been repeatedly sent to me in a dried state attached to specimens of the Camellia, but I have as yet not been able to ascertain their specific nature.

XIII.

17.

An Account of Bijapur in 1811, by Capt. G. Syden-HAM, of the Madras Fstablishment. Communicated by Col. C. MACKENZIE.

THERE is perhaps no place in India less known, and more worthy of being known, to Europeans, than Bijapur. Few have feen this City, and full fewer have described it. The account of TAVERNIER, the first European traveller of note who visited it, and who was there, it appears, in 1648 A. D. is strangely inaccurate. This authority is followed by Thevenor, who had not the means of ascertaining its truth by personal observation. Both describe B'jafur, as a City exhibiting nothing remarkable but crocodiles in the ditch which ferrounds it. Had Bernier, the most intelligent and correct of all the writers of that period upon India, seen Bjayar, he would have vindicated it from the misrepresentations of his predecessors: and most probably have affected with the Cities of Delhi and Agra, of which he has given so faithful and inceresting a delineation, the capital of the AADIL SHAHİ dynalty (a). Oams, in his fragments, laments the want of information respecting Bijapúr; and we are indebted to Major Moon (b), for having detected and exposed the inaccuracies

⁽a) See Scott's History of the Dekken, vol. i. p. 207.

⁽b) Narrative of the Operations of Captain Little's Detachment, p. 310.

which had for more than a century involved in obscurity one of the most splendid Cities in India; and for having brought to light its hidden beauties, in a faithful description of them written in 1794. Sir James Mackintosh visited Bijapar in 1808, and emphatically termed it the Palmyra of the Dekkan. The following account is drawn from an attentive survey of this City, in 1811.

The objects which attract particular notice at Fijapur, are classed in this impersed sketch, in the following order:

Ist The Fort and inner Citadel,

2d The remains of the City.

3d The principal edifices and public works within the Fort,

4th Those outside of it.

5th and lastly, a few cursory remarks will be offered on the history of the place, and on its present state.

1st. The wall of the Fort was completed by Ali Adric Shah in the year 1566 A. D. (c). Its defences confid in a rampart flanked by 109 towers of different dimensions, a ditch and covert-way surrounding it, and a Citadel in the interior.

These works are very strongly built, and still in tolerable repair; their exterior and interior revetments are of hewn stone, laid in chunam. The parapets are composed entirely of the same materials, and are 9 seet in height, and 3 seet in thickness. The towers are in general semi-circular, with a radius of about 36 seet. The curtains appear to rise from the bottom of the ditch, and vary from 30 to 40 seet in height, being about 24 seet in thickness. The ditch is in many parts silled up, and so covered with vegetation, that not a vestige of

⁽c) Scott's History of Dekkun vol. 1. p. 299.

it appears. In other parts it feems to have been formed through rock, in breadth from 40 to 50 feet, and about 18 in depth, a reveted counterfearp is discernible in many places, and the remains of a line of masonry running in a parallel direction at the distance of about 70 yards in front of this, point out the boundary of the covert-way. The circumference of the counterscarp is $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles and the form of the Fort an irregular circle.

The works of the Citadel (d) are composed of the same materials; it is regular and the desences consist of a ramport and sause-brane slanked by towers and a wet ditch about 120 sect in breach; the space between the rampars and the wall of the sausse-braye is very broad, the ditch entirely surrounds it; but the ramparts of the body of the place are not complete; there being about 3 surlongs in length on the north sace open. The encumference of the counterscarp of the ditch is about 5 surlongs. It's water is good and contains alundance of sine sith, but no alligators, as has been stated by some writers. There is but one entrance into the place, which is through two gates; one of them called the iron gate, is of wood cased with that metal. (c)

THE Citadel is faid to have been built by Yusur ÂADIL SHAH the founder of the dynafty of Bijapar, and afterwards improved by his fuccessors.

2dly. To the westward of the Fort are the remains of a most extensive City. To trace its limits would be a day's work. It is now an immense mass of ruins, but from the innumerable tombs.

⁽i) Kilai arag.

⁽c) For this description of the Fort I am chiefly indebted to a Memoic of the late Lieut. Davies of the Madras Engineers, kindly communicated by Colonel Mackenzie, Surveyor General of Latia.

mosques, caravanseras and edifices of every description which it exhibits, it must have been one of the greatest Cities in India. It was formerly divided into several púras or quarters. One of these Shah-púra is alone 6 miles in circumference, and is faid to have contained an hundred thousand buildings. It lies south-west of the Fort, and being that part of the City which was last built, the remains of its walls and streets are still perceptible, and it is distinguished by several monuments of ancient grandeur, whose durability has relisted the havock of time. To the fouth-west of this quarter is Afzal-pura and next to that Ibrahim-pura. Of the former, there are no remains but tombs, mosques &c. which is the case with the other, excepting that part most contiguous to the Fort, which has been repaired and forms the prefent Fettah. On the rains of the fouth-western extremity of the old City, now stands a walled town called Turwii, about two miles from the Fort, in which there are many buildings worth feeing.

Makhara (f) of Sultan Muhammed the last independent sovereign of the Aadil-Shaus dynasty. This stately building is 150 seet square in the instide, and including the dome upwards of 150 seet high. The diameter of this dome, I take to be not less than 130 (g) feet; its thickness I ascertained by measurement to be 9 seet, and as its shape is semicircular, its perpendicular height is of course 65 seet. The diameter in its concavity has been estimated at 117 seet, but as I ascended to the top of the building, I found that the diameter of the outer circle was equal to the inner width of the building, from which by subtracting double the thickness of the dome, its inner diameter was at once ascertained. There is a circular ledge 12 feet

⁽¹⁾ Literally "Place of hurial," and applied to the Tombs of Kings and Nobles.

eg) Only 10 feet less than the diameter of the Cupola of St. Peter's.

broad projecting into the larea of the building from the bottom of the inner circumference of the dome, which is so ingeniously laid upon supports inclining inwards to the fide walls in graceful curves, that it does not apparently diminish the width of the room, but is rather an ornament to it. It cannot be called a cornice, but affords the same relief and effect. I found my way to it through a niche in the cupola, and on raising my voice, the echo from the top was so perfect, that I could fancy it the voice of another person mimicking me. The tomb of the Sultán lies under a wooden canopy in the centre of the room on a platform of granite 80 feet square and raised 4 feet above the floor. On the right of the SULTAN's tomb, as you enter, are the tombs of his fon and daughter in law; on the left, the tombs of a favorite dancing-girl, his daughter, and his wife. Over a lofty door-way through which you enter on the fouthern side, are some Arabic inscriptions in Togra letters. which are foulptured, in alto-relievo. The characters are gilded, and the ground is painted with a liquid preparation of lajaward or lapis lazuli which gives the whole an appearance of a beautiful distribution of gold and enamel. All the infcriptions which I shall have occasion to mention are sculptured and ornamented after this fashion, and being disposed in all varieties of shape and figure have a very elegant effect. They are faid to be all extracts from the Korán, but the characters are so entwined and interwoven with each other, that the quickest reader of this hand would find some difficulty in decyphering them. I was, however, fuccelsful in discovering a Persian inscription here, which is a chronogram on the death of Sultan Muthe end of Muhammed " وا قبت محمود شد The line is ما قبت محمود شد was happy," and the date answering to it is 1067 Hijis. On the outfide of this face is suspended from the top of the building,

⁽h) A. D. 1656.

in a triangular chain a large stone, which my philosophic conductor infifted upon calling "thunder-bolt," declaring that it possessed the virtue of protecting the fabric from injury. The height of the building including the balustrades, which are 6 feet high, and exclusive of the dome is 110 feet. These balustrades are relieved on each face by two cupolas near the corners, under them is a gallery about 10 feet high and 5 broad, prefenting to the front of each face a neat arcade of 19 arches. At the four corners of the tomb are minarets, well adapted in their construction to the rest of the work. Their height, including that of the domes by which they are furmounted, is about 140 feet. Their shape is octagonal, one side of the chagon resting against a projection from the corner of the building, which contains a narrow circular stair-case, by which you alcend to the top Each minaret has eight ftories: feven of these are octagonal rooms of 12 feet diameter, with an arched roof: each fide of the oftagoa has an open arch 6 feet in depth, and over them are rings for fixing perdas. You enter these small rooms from the stair-case through one of the arches; and through the other feven you look out into the court. The whiteness of the minaret is relieved by a cornice of dark granite between the arches, and also by its dome, the flone of which is of a reddiff tinge. Again, these arches, with the intervening cornice, and the balustrades surrounding the batement of the dome, give a lightness to the minarets which their bulk would have prevented, had not its effect been counterbalanced by the skill and taste of the architect. The minarets have also a fine relief from the body of the work, the stone of which is well polished and of a dark colour. The outfide of the large dome is white and the domes of the minarets, the small cupolas, and balustrades, of a redaish coloured stone.

THE general Ryle of this tomb is grandeur and simplicity; and

its construction does creat up the taste of the architect and to the munificence of its projector.

THE tomb is raised on a terrace of granite 200 yards square, and 2 high, with a plain cornice on the edge. Opposite the eastern and western faces of the building in the centre of this platform are large fountains; and from the western-side of it projects another terrace to the distance of 30 yards, at the end of which is situated the mosque, which is 20 yards long, and has a handsome dome over its centre. The style of the mosque corresponds with that of the principal building, and its minarets are extremely neat. The whole is situated in a capacious enclosure upwards of 300 yards square, containing range of buildings with an arcade in front. The northern face is close to the rampart of the Fort, and in the centre of the fouthern face is the Nakkár-Khánah, (i) through which you enter this court, after having passed an outer enclosure of between two and three hundred yards square, with an arcade on each face, containing ranges of rooms for public accommodation. From the top of the minarcts of the tomb you have a perfect view of the Fort, and all the fine edifices that it contains, and of the country feveral miles beyond it in every direction. The tomb and all its contiguous structures were built by Sultan Muhammed himself.

THE object which next presents itself for notice is the Jám Masjid or public mosque, a very elegant structure. In the centre of the building is an open space 75 feet square, over which the dome is raised: the walls on the four sides of this square have each three open arches. The centre arch is the largest of the three, and on each side of it, is a narrow ornamental band running perpendicularly up the wall, and joining another band laid diagonally above the arch.

⁽i) Place where a large Drum, called the Nakkaruh, is beaten.

This ornament is composed of a chequered work of very small tiles, painted alternately with blue and yellow. colours of a most brilliant hue, the continuity of which is relieved in the centre of each band, by ornaments, in which there is a more graceful and variegated difposition of the tiles. Over the arches which face the caba or recess, and above the band, are three illuminated inscription in Togra. (j) The fide inscriptions are immediately above the fide arches, and in Arabic characters disposed in a circular form. The central ornament, which is above the centre arch, partakes more of the form of a narrow oval, and contains the following infcription, in large letters ALLAH, MUH'AMMED, ABUBACR, OMAR, ÔSMÁN, HYDER, (i. e. Ali) (k) by which we Smarthan Soltan Muhammen, by whose order all the ornaments in the mosque were executed was a Sunni (1) though all his predecessors except the last, were of the Shinh (m) fest. The recess itself is most richly decorated with a profusion of gilt and enamel, and covered with beautiful inscriptions, all in Arabic, with the exception of a stanza in Persian, on the instability of this life, and this the building of the mosque " بناى مسجد سلطان عاقبت محسود of the Sultan whose end was happy" which makes the date of the completion of the mosque to be 991 Hijrs. (n) The whole of the building is raifed upon a terrace about 15 feet from the ground, which has vaults underneath it. The height of the top of the dome from the surface of the ground is 140 feet. The outside of the building presents a double arcade in each face: the lower one is closed, but the upper row is open, and constitutes the front of a spacious gal-

⁽i) A large ornamental character in arabic writing.

⁽k) The name, of the prophet and his four immediate successors, in the order in which they succeeded to the khaliphat.

⁽¹⁾ Orthodox.

⁽m) The principal sect of Dissenters. A full account of both sects is contained in D'Ohsson's Tableau de l'Empire Ottoman.

⁽¹¹⁾ A. D. 1583.

lery, which is faid to be constructed on a similar plan to that at Mecca. The edifice was founded and nearly finished by ALI AADIL SHAH. It was completed by his fuccessor Ibrahim 2d. and the ornamental parts of it were executed in the reign of his fon Mu-H'AMMED. The mimbar or pulpit, confisting of three steps of white marble was furnished by Aurengzés, who also built the outer half of the wings and the gate-way fronting the mosque. He likewise chunamed the floor, and divided it into more than two thousand mufallas or partitions marked by black lines upon which Muhamedans pray. But he carried off a maffy filver chain suspended from the top, to the end of which was fastened a large ruby, which, the principal attendant gravely affured me, had a lustre so brilliant as to give light to the mosque at night. He also took away all the musallas of velvet satin and broad-cloth, which formerly covered the floor: every thing that he pilfered was converted into money and distributed to his troops. This account may perhaps be exaggerated; but as this conqueror was not very forupulous in matters of religion, except in the observance of it's outward forms, tho' he once assumed the garb of a fakir to cloak his ambitious design; and as he had a numerous army to maintain who were fometimes clamorous for pay, he thought probably as little of robbing a mosque, as some conquerors of the West have done, of plundering churches.

The next in order to the above buildings is the unfinished Mak-bara of Âlí-Âàdil Sháh. It was constructed by the Sultán himself upon a terrace 15 feet high, and upwards of 200 feet square. In each face are seven losty arches, thirty feet high and 20 broad; and between the opposite sides are seven rows of these arches. They were all completed when the Sultán died, and the work remained unsinished without being roofed. It is said that Âlí-Âàdil Sháh intended to have built an upper story of the same dimensions, over

the centre of which was to have been reared a dome, suitable to the magnitude of the building, which had it been sinished would have been a more stupendous work than the Mausoleum of Muh'ammed. But even in its present state, it is a grand object, and from the style of the arches has some resemblance at a distance to a splendid Gothic structure in ruins.

SECANDER the last fovereign of this dynasty, who yielded the Fort and his person to Aurengzés, lies under, a mean tomb-stone, like that of TANAH-SHAH (0) at Rauza; and the sepulchres of both these royal captives afford a melancholy exhibition of the infibility of human greatness. Near this building are the Taj Bauri, a most capacious Well constructed by SENED-UL MULC, an eunuch of BRAHM's court, the tombs of Abdul Reza, and his ion, celebrated fukirs in his reign, the sepulchre of Aurengzen's daughter (queen, he fays) &c. The agates and pavement of the latter, with the greatest part of the marble railing round the tomb have been removed by facrilegious hands fince Moor visited it. There is another Well near the northwestern angle of the Fort very little inferior to the Táj-Bauri. It is the work of CHAND Bibi, the wife of Ali-Aadil-Shah, and daughter of one of the Nizám Shahí fovereigns, who in the reign of Ibrahim 2d. repaired to her brother's court, and defended Ahmad. nagar to gallantly against Sultan-Muran; and whose heroism received so just a tribute from the pen of FERISHTA. On one side of this fine Well is a neat little mosque. The Uperi Buri or lofty cavalier inside of the Fort was built by HYDER KHÁN, a noble in the court of IBRAHIM AADIL-SHAH Ist. There is a small but neat building called the Kadam-i-Rafúl, but vulgarly and improperly so, as it is supposed to have contained a few precious hairs of the prophet's beard, not an impression of his foot; Muh'ammed Shah removed

⁽c) The last King of the Kurs Shahi dynasty of Golconda, taken prisoner by Augengzia,

them from this palace to a grand edifice which he erected close to the eastern wall of the Citadel, and communicating with it, and which he at first intended for his own Palace. By another account it appears that they were deposited by Aurengze's in the palace of Muh'ammed, which is now called Afar-i-Sharif, from the holy relics, it is still believed to contain. This absurd story of the Afar-i-sharif is alluded to by Ferishta, who relates that. Mir. MUH'AMMED SÁLIC HAMADÁNÍ, a venerable Saiyid, arriving near Bijapúr, (p) and bringing with him some hairs of the prophet, the Sultain, (q) eager to pay his respects to such valuable relices, went out to meet him; and having conducted him into the City entertained him with royal magnificence for many days. He And avoured to prevail upon him to fix his residence at his court, but the holy-man was earnest to perform the pilgrimage to Mecca; and at his departure the Sultan conferred upon him many rich prefents, and received from him two of the facred hairs, which he placed with care in a golden shrine fet with jewels, and constantly visited it every Friday night and upon all holy-days. None have now access to them, but those who are interested in the imposture, or who are superstitious enough to believe it a reality. The dimensions of the hall of this palace, will give some idea of the whole building. It it about 50 paces long, and 15 broad, and it's height may be 75 feet. It's front has one large arch in the centre, and a smaller one on each side. Immediately before the hall is a grand reservoir 75 yards long, 60 broad, and 6 deep, into which projects a fmall terrace, from the central arch, with a wooden railing round it. The greatest part of the palace is in ruins. At one end of the hall lies a large flab of yellow stone richly veined, nearly 6 feet long, 2 feet broad, and one span thick. It is of the same kind as the

⁽p.) 1595. A. D.

⁽q.) Ibrahim 2d.

fmall variegated flones which you fometimes fee inlaid in the pavement in front of dargahs, is confidered very valuable, and water rubbed on it is supposed to have some medicinal virtue; this species of stone is called Seng-i-Sumák.

In a handsome street leading from the eastern gate-way of the Citadel to the Jámi Masjid, are the remains of a grand state prison, and a mint. There is also a lofty building of three stories, with a mosque adjoining it, constructed of black stone very elegantly carved in some places. This was erected by a sweeper or milter, who must have been what this name literally imports, for such a work would not be discreditable to a prince. You see the ruins of many splendid houses built by Omrahs of the court, with adjoining mosques, courts &c. The most conspicuous amongst them is the mandan of Mustafá Khan, an eminent nobleman in the reign of Als Additable.

The Fort is abundantly supplied with water by aqueducts from Turwái, the Bégam Táláb, and other reservoirs on the southern side of it, and by a number of fine Wells, the principal of which have been described. The Bégam Táláb is now out of order, and most of the other tanks were destroyed in the last reign of this sovereignty, in order to prevent an enemy from sitting long before the place.

The dimensions of the large gun, called Málic-i-Maidán, (r) or "master-of-the-field" are correctly given by Major Mook (s) It was not however, as he states, cast by Aurengzés. This immense piece of ordnance was made by Rumi Khán, a Turkish officer of one of the Nizám Sháhs, and fell into the hands of Sultán Mu-h'ammed of Bijapúr, who had engraved upon it in Persian this

⁽r) It is of the composition called Puchrupee or of five metals.

⁽s) r. 322.

inscription: "The Prince MUB'AMMEOGHAZI, in splendor like "the fun, under whole shade the world fought a shelter. By the " face of his all-destroying fabre, in half the twinkling of an eve, he took " the malter-of-the-field from Nizam Shan." This inscription was erased by the order of Aurungzen, who had the following one subslituted for it: "Shah Aalumgir Ghazi, emperor of kings, who " restored justice and conquered the sovereigns of the Dekkan, re-"duced Bijapur. Fortune smiled on him, and victory exclaimed; 4 he has fubdued the master-of-the-sield." The date of the conquest is expressed by these words سکے میدان راکرفت (t) " he took the master-of-the-field" and is "1096 Hijri." The date cut on the gun is 1007. (u) The neatness of the chronogram is a sufficient excused for the mistake of one year. There is an annual refort of Andus to this gun, and it has a few constant attendants who place flowers and perfumes in and about it. There is a very ancient but substantial fidgah (v) in the fort built by Yu'sur MADIL SHAHE

Or the buildings in the Citadel, all are in ruins, except a beautiful little mosque built by Âlí-Âàdil Sháh. The inside is of sinely polished black granite, very neatly carved, and on the sides of the cábah, are several well executed sculptures of different mosques. The most conspicuous object here is a losty edifice called Hest-Kendee, or seven-stories, in one of which is a drawing on the wall of Âlí-Âàdil-Sháh, and Rambhá a dancing-girl. This was part of that Sultán's Palace, and the entrance to it is through a grand court 140 yards long by 80 broad. Front of the Dhobi-Mahl, another

⁽۱) المك ميد ان means literally King of the Field, المال appears here, and in p. 448, to be confounded with المال which certainly signifies," master, owner, proprietor, &c. Ex.

⁽n) A. D. 1685.

⁽v) Place where the two principal Muhammed an Rides or fearte are celebrated.

palace, presen's to the view three lofty arches; the centre one of which is of extraordinary dimensions. It is 60 feet broad, and 8 deep, and the height appears about 80 feet. Next to this is the A. · nanda Mahl, which has the appearance from the style in which it is built, of having been the residence of the ladies of the Haram. Adjoining this is the Adawlut-Khánah, or court-of-justice, situated at the extremity of a court 150 yards long by 80 broad. Here the Sultans were installed, in a balcony projecting from the upper flory, where also justice was administered. In front of the building is a large fountain, and at the opposite end of the court is a low range of buildings with a front of 30 arches, in which the UMRAHS attended in waiting. There is a black stone a few paces before the centre of this arcade, called the mujri gáh, from which the officers of the court used to perform their obeisances. On the right of the from of the Adawlut Khanah is the Sona Mahl, which, as its name implies, was 'richly gilded, but now hardly a veffige of this ornament remains. Coposite to the Sona Mahl, is the Sicca Mahl, in which was kept the privy-feal. Beyond this is the Pan' Mahl, built on the brink of the ditch on the northern fide of the Citadel. The upper room is faced with black granite, covered with foulptured inforiptions in the Togra, not one of which I could decypher. From this place the SULTANS used to view combats between elephants, their menagerie and hunning establishments, and parties of troops in review order. on a finall plain immediately beyond the ditch. After having pafted the eastern gateway of the Citadel, you see on entering the Fort on the fides of the road four pillars of black marble, an offering from the widow of RAMRAJ to All-AADIL SHAH. One of them is carved, the other plain and circular. Their diameter is one cubit, and they are faid to be 15 feet high; but not more than a third of them is feen, the rest being surrounded with a support of stone and mud. On the curtain outfide of this gate is a carved reprefemation of the head of RAMRAJ, inclining downwards in commemoration of the wretched fate of that great potentate, who was beheaded, after having been defeated and taken prisoner in a most severe battle with the allied armies of the Mukammedan sovereigns of the Dekkan. Ali-Aadil-Shah headed the consederacy which decided the sate of the gigantic empire of Bijnagar. I neither saw nor heard of the equestrian statue of Ramraj at Bijapuir, which has been mentioned in a former work, though my guide of his own accord pointed out to me the head. Within the Citadel is a very ancient Pagoda, from which it would appear that there was a fortress here before the Mukammedan invasion of the Dekkan, which partly razed, and partly repaired, improved, and extended, may have constituted the work said to have been constructed by Yu'sur Aadil Shah. The Pagoda is built very much in the style of the rudest excavations at Final, and appears very ancient.

4.4thly. The most conspicuous amongst the buildings outside of the Fort is the Makhara of Sultán Ibráhím 2d, On the outfide of the body of the mausoleum over which the dome is raised, the walls are carved into Arabic infcriptions, sculptured with great skill, and disposed in every variety of ornament. The gilding and enamel, however, is entirely defaced, excepting in a fmall part of one of the fides, where its remains give a faint idea of its former lustre. A person looking at the illuminated page of a beautiful oriental manuscript, magnifying this, and sancying it to be represented by sculpture, painting, and gilding, on the face of a wall of black granite, will have some conception of the labour, skill, and brilliancy of this work. The whole of the Koran is faid to be carved on the four fides of this elegant structure, in which, the utmost art and talke of the architect and the sculptor have combined to produce the richest effect. This beautiful building with it's mosque was erected by lara-HIM for his deceafed daughter, Zuhrah (w) Sultan, and on his death,

⁽w) Venus.

his remains were deposited here. It has unfortunately sustained some injury from the shot of that extraordinary gun "the Malic-i-maidan", which were directed against the tents of Aurengzen, who first encamped, a little beyond the tomb. Among the numerous edifices in the old city are a good caravanfara constructed by Must AFA KHAN, and a still more losty one of two stones, of which only one face remains, built by a Sáhúkár or Banker, both situated in Shahpu'ra. In these times Sahúkars, living under native governments, do not perpetuate their memory by public works of this kind, but live in small houses, and move about in mean equipages, and in short do every thing to conceal the real amount of their wealth, which, if displayed, might possibly become the prey of their rapacious governors. Near these caravaniaras is the dargah (x) of Amin-o-din-i-ala, siqualed on a rifing ground, and one of the neatest places of this description of have ever feen. This man came from Bukhara to the court of Sul-TAN MUH'AMMED, and died in the reign of SECANDER in 1086 Hij-11, sculptured above the door of the dargah. Moon makes rather a ridiculous miltake about the meaning of the word, Kh.m. jah, which is applied very commonly to these holy personages. and fignifies lord or mafter. I was very politely received here by the Sajjudah Neshin, or superior of the dargah, SAIYID-MUH'AM. MED HUSAINÍ, a lineal descendant of the KHAUJAHS, whose appearance is more worldly than devout. The striking contrast between the honors paid to the memory of these devotees, and the neglect shewn to that of kings, is observable throughout India. The principal edifice in Afzalpura, is the handsome tomb of Afzal-KHAN SHIRAZÍ, one of the principal nobles in the court of Ali-AADIL-SHAH. and a disciple of Chingi Shah's, whose dargah is near his pupil's tomb. CHINGÍ SHAH was a follower of the celebrated SHAH-MADÁR, the founder of a fect of fakirs. All those who lead about tigers, bears, and mon-

⁽x) Name applied to the tombs of Sajuts and Religious personages,

kies are of this feet, the followers of which are perhaps the most difficulte and vagabond of all Muhammedans. Shan Madár is buried at Makanpur, and a host of pilgrims annually resort to his tomb from all parts of Hindooslan. The Makanpur-cà-Mélá as it is called, is perhaps the most numerous and most celebrated of all pilgrimages or rather fairs, in Hindooslan.

ALL the tombs and mosques which have been described, were sumptuously endowed in the time of the kings of Bijapar. These endowments were, however, very much curtailed by Aurenoze's, who settled the following maintenance for the support of their establishments.

For the roy brombs, a daily allowance of 5 rupces to the attendants, and a rupces for the expence of lamps, perfumes and flows

THE Jang Masjid, 2 rupees per diem.

The ascient fldgah i rupee per diens, to the Munazzin or public crier, at the files,

The fideah outlide of the Fort, built by the emperor, half a rupee wer diem.

THE Afar i Sharif & of a rupec per diem, besides 2 supecs to the Mutawalli or principal attendant.

THE Dargah of Amin o din-i-Ala 2,200 rupees from the annual collections in the City, and some villages in the district, producing a revenue of 15,000 Rupees. There are a number of inferior places, which have small endowments. All the edifices which have been described, have not a particle of wood in them, but are built entirely of granite, finely polished, and is neatly put together, that it is scarce per-

ceptible where the stones join. Every house in the Fort and City is built of stone. The style of architecture here is much superior to any specimen, that I have seen in India. The domes, arches and minarets, and the ornamental work, are all executed in the best take, and really present fine specimens of the art. The gilding and enamel is very much in the Persian style; and there are some build. ings, which appear to be constructed after the Turkish fashion. It will be recolleded, that the fovereigns of this court were of Turkish descent, and that the greatest part of the nobility were Turke, Persians, and Tartars. There were, also many, foreign artists in the fervice of the Court, who no doubt introduced the Hyle of builds ing and decoration prevalent in their own countries. FERISHTA relates, that the first Sultan Yusur-Aadul Snah invited many eminent grants from Persia, Tartary, and Turkey, to his court, and made there-"easy under the shade of his bounty; and that his successor Ismanu, was himself a complete artist in painting and varnishing.'2 These two Sultans, with the 3d. Ibrahim, were buried at Gooké, about 6 Cole from Shelapur.

I regret that I am unable to render the preceding description more interesting by designs of the principal buildings, and by copies of inscriptions, which on many accounts are valuable. The object of this impersect account, is to attract the traveller and the artist to this noble City, before the rapid progress of dilapidation shall have lest only the vestiges of it's ancient grandeur. The one will here find a wide sield for observation and restriction, and the other will have full scope to the employment of his pencil; and should the public hereaster be favored with a more accurate description of Bijapúr, and with representations of it's most elegant structures, I shall be happy in having contributed by this humble effort to rescue from oblivion, the still splendid remains of one of the most magnificent Cities of India.

gibly. For an account of the origin and progress of the fovereignty of Bijapur, Ferishta may be consulted with great advantage - That interesting writer brings his History of this dynasty down to the end of the reign (y) of IBRAHIM AADIL SHAH, 2d. (z) Of the Subsequent reigns, embracing a period of fixty years, until the conquelt of Bijapur, by the Imperial arms, we have no fatisfactory account; for the meagre epitome in the Looboo-Rowareekh, (a) scarcely excites curiofity. A History of the reign of Selvas Muhammen, written after the plan . of Ferisht A's work, would be interesting, as the latter part of it would exhibit the causes of the decline of this monarchy, which, howover, preserved its splendor during the greatest part of that Prince's government.—At Bijapúr, you hear more of Sulfán-i-Muhmood, than all his predecessors; and though the predilection for his name may, in some degree, arise from his being the last independ at 103 vereign and the best known of the Addit Shaus, still all concur in giving him a most amiable character, and in extolling his justice, and his munificence. The functifiers of the Impetral armies, and the extension of their conquetts in the Dekkan, gave a vital blow to the interest of it's several independent sovereignties. Muh'ammed AAD: L SHAH, about the year 1650 A. D. was compelled to become tributary to the emperor SHAH JAPAN, and at the close of his reign, the author rity of Muh'ammen was still further weakened by the successful rebellion of Sevaji. In the reign of his fucceffor, the foundations of the monarchy were completely subversed, and Sevaji, after having treacherously affalfinated the general of Ali Albit-Shah. and twice deleated his troops, usurved the greatest part of his dominions. Alí A Dil-Stát dud in 1672 A. D. leaving a nominal kingdom to his infant fon Secander; and in 16.5, Bijapur, with it's few

⁽¹⁾ A. D. 1626.

⁽²⁾ This Pince original 47 years.

⁽a) The Esames of Histories.

remaining dependencies, was reduced to the imperial yoke by Asrum-

THE 2d. volume of Scott's Listory of Dekkan, from p. 35 to 53, and from p. 69 to 73, contains adetailed account of the reign of SECANDER AADIL SRAH, of the operations of the Imperial troops against the kingdom of Bijapur before the arrival of the emperor in the Dekkan, and of the siege and conquest of Bijapur by Aurengzen. But the date of the conquest, as represented in that account of his operations in the Dekkan, is incorrect; for, by the inscription on that immense gun, the "Malic-i Maidan," the true date is ascertained to be 1007 A. H. or 1685 A. D. which is also given in the Locboo Towareekh, as the year in which Bijapur surrendered to the Imperial army. All the Persian histories, which I have consulted on this subject, are filent respecting the sate of Secander; but, from the verbal accounts of the best informed persons at Bijubar, it appears that he was put to death by Aarumgir, a few months after he furrendered himself to that emperor. When he first waited upon him, he carried upon his head the Afar-i-Sharif, but these holy relies did not save him from destruction. Aurenczes, having discovered, or having pretended to discover, that his royal captive was engaged in a confpiracy with Sevaji, put an end to his existence by having poison administered to him in a melon, or as some say, by having him crushed to death between two boards. I heard at Bijapur, an anecdote of a conversation which passed between Aurengzen, and his daughter, the Broum, whose sepulchre has been described, which is perhaps worth relating. On the fall of the place, the emperor was boalling to her of the success with which Providence had crowned his arms in every quarter, and of his having by the extinction of this fovereignty accomplished every object of his ambition, and subdued and dethroned

every powerful king in Hindroftan, and the Dekkan. The Begum observed, "your majesty, it is true, is the conquerer of the world, (b) "but you have departed from the wise policy of your illustrious "ancestors, who, when they substited kingdoms, made the possessor of them their subjects and tributaries, and thus became kings of kings; (c) while you are now only a simple king, without royal substitute." Just to pay you homage, and to give you a claim to that enviable title." Aurengzés was forcibly struck with the justice of this remark, which occasioned him so much uneasiness, that he could not refrain from expressing his displeasure at the delivery of sentiments so hurtful to his vanity. When Aurengzés took Bijupir, he give it the name of "Dar-oo Zuffur. (d)

THE Emperor's fon, Muhammed Kam Bukhsh, was appointed the government of Bijapur, 1707 A. D. In this eventful year, Aurun 16-ZCB died, and his fons contended for the empire. KAM BURHSH on his arrival at Bijapur, assumed the imperial titles, proclaimed the Khootba, and firuck coins in his own name. Fortune, however, favored the arms of Shán-Alum, who having vanquished all the competitors for Bijapur, remained under the imperial authority until the year 1724 A. D. the epoch of the establishment of Nizava. OOL-MOOLK's independence in the Dekkan. It was hild by his fucceffors till 1760, when NIZAM-ULEB-KHAN, having been completely defeated by the Peshwa Balajee-Bajee-Rao, purchased a peace by ceding to the MARHATTAS the Scobah of Bijapir, with other for's and districts, yielding an annual revenue of 60,00,000 supees. From that period, the MARHATTAS have retained possession of this Foit, and it's dependencies.

⁽b.) Allumgia, the name by which Albendzes is generally called it India.

⁽c) Shahun Sha ..

⁽d) The Place of Victory.

Ir is difficult now to ascertain the amount of revenue produced in the dominions of the independent sovereigns of Bijapur. The gross revenue of their territories, according to the Jumma-Bundee (e) established by Aurengze's, was 7,88,80,000 rupees. The military force maintained by Sultán Muhamed, amounted to 1,80,000 horse; and in the time of his successor Ali Addil-Shah 2d, to 80,000.

Besjapu'r as it was, and Bijapur as it is, are two very different places. The City is a mass of ruins, as well as the inside of the Fort, which itself is so injured, that in one or two places in it's eastern face, you can ascend from the ditch to the rampart. In short, nothing now remains but the durable monuments of it's ancient grandeur. What Is now called the Soobah of Bijapur, is only one of it's former firears districts, which produced in the time of AALUMGIR 24 00,000 rupres, derived from the huwéli, (f) or capital, and 29 pergunnahs dependent on it. But this district has been dilmembered under the MARHATTA government, and it's dependent pergunnals now toppose feveral distinct Jagurs. One of these is the City and its dependent villages (huw h) of Etjapur, containing 32 villages under the City, held in Jagir by Gokla, one of the principal military chieftains under the Pashwa's government. The huwéli with it's dependencies, produced, in the time of AALUMGIR, upwards of 5,00,000 rupees: and under the MARHATTAS, about twenty years ago, one lac. It's prefent revenue, I understand, is between 30 and 40,000 rupees, about a fourth of which is faer (g), and the rest mál, or territorial produce: and this diminution in the revenue is the consequence of a bad administration of the country, the greatest part of which is now desolate.

⁽e) Rental.

⁽f) City and its dependent Villages.

⁽g) Imposts.

The fort has now only 50 Sibundies (h) for its garrison, and the Aumil (i) maintains a hundred. About 3,500 rupees are distributed from the revenues of the district, among the Michammedan attendants, at the different tombs and mosques, which have been described, and will be considered rather a liberal allowance from a Hindoo government, for the maintenance of a religious class of people of a different persuasion.

Bijapúr is situated in N. lat. 17°.9. and E. long. 75°.42. The country is open in its immediate neighbourhood, and the climate is said to be salubrious.

⁽h) Irregular matchlockmen.

⁽i) Collector.

XIV.

Essay on the Binomial Theorem; as known to the Arabs.

By J. TYTLER, Esq.

Communicated by R. TYTLER, M. D.

FOR a long time it was imagined that the discovery of the law which determines the coefficients of the terms of the powers of a Binomial Root, commonly called the Binomial Theorem, was entirely owing to SIR ISAAC NEWTON. My present distance from books and other sources of information compels me, in proof of this, to refer to so common a work, as JOHN WARD'S Popular Introduction to Mathematics. He explains the Theorem, in part II. chap. 2 § 5, and concludes with these words: "Now from these considerations it was, that I proposed this method of raising powers in my Compendium of Algebra, page 51, as wholly new (viz. so much of it as was there useful), having then (I prosess) neither seen the way of doing it, nor so much as heard of its being done. But, since the writing of that tract, I find in Dr. Wallis's

History of Algebra, page 319 and 331, that the learned Sir Isaac Newton had discovered it long before: which the doctor sets down in this manner:

Let m be the exponent of the power;

Then
$$\left\{1 \times \frac{m-0}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3} \times \frac{m-3}{4} \times \frac{m-4}{5} \right\}$$
 &c.

will be the series of the Uncice required; but he doth not tell us how they first came to be found out, nor have I met with the least hint of it in any author."

THOMAS SIMSON, also, in the 6th section of his Algebra, attributes it without any hesitation to Sir Isaac Newton. At last, the late Dr. HUTTON, in the 77th page of the Introduction to his excellent Mathematical Tables, edition IVth, showed that this Theorem, as far as relates to integers, was known before the time of Sir Isaac, and that his merit consisted in the extension of it to fractions. The passage is not very long, and will save the trouble of a reference, and bring the whole subject at once before the reader; I shall therefore transcribe it.

"For affigning the coefficients of the terms in the multiple expressions, our author (Briggs) here delivers the construction of figurate or polygonal numbers, inserts a large table of them, and teaches their several uses; one of which is, that every other number, taken in the diagonal lines, surnishes the coefficients of the terms of the general equation by which the sines and chords of multiple arcs are expressed, which he amply illustrates; and another, that the same diagonal numbers constitute the

coefficients of the terms of any power of a Binomial; which property was also mentioned by VIETA, in his Angulares Sectiones, Theor. 6, 7; and, before him, pretty fully treated of by STIFELIUS, in his Arithmetica Integra, fol. 44 and seq.; where he inferts and makes the like use of such a table of figurate numbers, in)extracting the roots of all powers whatever. But it was perhaps known much earlier, as appears by the treatise on figurate numbers by NICOMACHUS, (see MALCOLM'S History, p. XVIII.) Though indeed, CARDAN feems to ascribe this discovery to STIFELIUS. See his Opus Novum de Proportionibus Numerorum, where he quotes it, and extracts the table and its use from STIFEL's book. CARDAN, in p. 135, &c. of the same work, makes use of a like table to find the number of variations or conjugations, as he calls them. Stevi-NUS, too, makes use of the same coefficient and method of roots as STIFE-LIUS. (See his Arith. p. 25.) And even Lucas De Burgo extracts the cube root by the same coefficients, about the year 1470. But he does not go to any higher roots. And this is the first mention I have seen of this law of the coefficients of the powers of a Binomial, commonly called Sir J. Newton's Binomial Theorem; although it is very evident that Sir Isaac was not the first inventor of it. The part of it properly belonging to him, seems to be, only the extending it to fractional indices, which was indeed an immediate effect of the general method of denoting all roots like powers with fractional exponents, the Theorem being not at all-altered. However, it appears, that our author BRIGGS was the first who taught the rule for generating the coefficients of the terms, successively one from another, of any powers of a Binomial, independent of those of any other power. For having shewn, in his

Abacus $\Pi_{\alpha\gamma\chi\rho\eta_500}$ (which he so calls on account of its frequent and excellent use, and of which a small specimen is here annexed,) that the numbers in the diagonal directions, ascending from right to lest,

ABACUS ΠΑΓΧΡΗΣΤΟΣ.								
-(8)	G -(7)	F +(6)	E +(5)	D -(4)	C (3)	B +(2)	Λ (1)	
y	8 36	7 28	6	5	4	3	2	
	30	84 84	21 56	15 35	10 20	6 10	3 4	
		٠.	126	70	35	15	5	
				126	56 84	21 28	6 7	
•				1		36	8	
							9	

are the coefficients of the powers of Binomials, the indices being the figures in the first perpendicular column A, which are also the coefficients of the 2d terms of each power, (those of the first terms being 1, are here omitted); and that any one of these diagonal numbers is in proportion to the next higher in the diagonal, as the vertical of the former is to the marginal of the latter; that is, as the uppermost number in the column of the former is to the first or right hand number in the line of the latter. Having shewn these things, I say, he thereby teaches the generation of the coefficients of any power, independently of all other powers, by the very same law or rule which we now use in the Binomial Theorem. Thus, for the 9th power; 9 being the coefficient of the 2d term, and 1 always that of the 1st, to find the 3st coefficient, we have 2:8:

9: 36; for the 4th term, 3:7::36:8: for the 5th term, 4:6::84:
126; and so on for the rest. That is to say, the coefficients in the terms in any power m, are inversely as the vertical numbers or first line 1, 2,

3, 4, ..., m, and directly as the afcending numbers m, m-1, m-2, m-3, 1, in the first column A; and that consequently those coefficients are found by the continual multiplication of these fractions $\frac{m}{1}$, $\frac{m-1}{2}$, $\frac{m-2}{3}$, $\frac{m-3}{4}$, \cdots $\frac{m}{1}$, which is the very Theorem as it stands at this day, and as applied by NEWTON to roots or fractional exponents, as it had before been used for integral powers. This Theorem then being thus plainly taught by BRIGGS about the year 1600, it is surprising how a man of such general reading as Dr. Wallis was, could possibly be ignorant of it, as he plainly appears to be by the 85th chapter of his Algebra, where he fully ascribes the invention to Newton, and adds, that he himself had formerly sought for such a rule but without success: or how Mr. John Bernouilli, not half a century fince, could himself first dispute the invention with NEWTON, and then give the discovery of it to M. PASCAL, who was not born till long after it had been taught by BRIGGS. See BERNOUILLI'S works, vol. 4. pa. 173. But I do not wonder that Briggs's remark was unknown to Newton, who owed almost every thing to genius and deep meditation, but very little to reading: and I have no doubt that he made the discovery himself, without any light from BRIGGS, and that he thought it was new for all powers in generals, as it was indeed for roots and quantities with fractional and irrational exponents."

Thus far Dr. Hutton. Mr. Reuben Burrows in the IId volume of the Asiatic Researches, Appendix No. V. suspects that this rule was known to the *Hindus*. I am now about to show, that it was also known to the *Arabians*. It is to be found in two of their Arithmetical books

viz. the Mifteh ul-Hifab, or key of Arithmetic, composed by Jumshid, BEN MUSAOUD in the reign of Ulugh BEG, grandfon of Timur, and in the Ayoun ul. Hisab, or rules of Arithmetic, composed by MUHAMMED' BAQIR in the reign of SHAH ABBAS I, about the year 1600. Neither of these works is very generally to be met with; at least in that part of India where I am stationed, and I have not as yet been able to procure more than an extract of each. The author of the Miftch ul-Hifab declares (I am told) that his rule is not invented by himfelf, but taken from authors more ancient still. His rule is much more complicated than that in the Ayoun-ul-Hisab, and presupposes an acquaintance with former parts of the work, which are not in my possession. I do not therefore transcribe that, but proceed to give the rule as it stands in the Ayoun ul-Hisab, premising that the coefficients of the terms are called the اصول منازل of the power, which I have translated Radices Locorum; and the first power of a number, that is, the number itself considered as a root, is called the ضلع اول or نلع which I have, in like manner, translated Latus or Latus Primum.

اعلم ان اصول منزلة كل مضلع هي اعداد بازاء الصلع الاول والمصلعات السابقة عليه وطريق في استخراجها ان تثبت اسامي الصلع والمضلعات السابقة على المضلع المفروض مرتبة في سطر طولي و تاخذ عدد منزلة ذلك المصلع و تضعه بازاء ضلع ثم تفقص مفه و احدا و تصرب نصف ما بقي فيما وضع بازاء الصلع اوبالعكس و تضع المحاصل بازاء المال ثم تنقص مفه الذين و تصرب ثلث المباتي فيما وضع بازاء المال اوبالعكس و تضع المحاصل بازاء المكعب ثم تفقص مفه ثلثة و تصرب ربع الباتي فيما وضع بازاء المكعب اوبالعكس و تضع المحاصل بازاء مال لمهال وهكذا وتصرب ربع الباتي فيما وضع بازاء المحب اوبالعكس و تضع المحاصل بازاء مال لمهال وهكذا الى ان يغتهى ولا محالة يقع بازاء كل شيعين متقابلين من المحواشي الى الوسطاو الوسطين عدم واحد فان شيدت فارسم اولا بازاء الاخير وما تبله ايضا ما ترسعه بازاء الصلع وبازاء المال وهكذا

الى أن يتم مثاله أرفنا أن نستخرج أصول منزلة كعب كعب كعب الكعب كتبنا الصلح الى مثل ملك عب كعب المكعب كتبنا الصلح والاخير وتقصنا من منه وأحدا وضربناه في نصف ١٢ ورسمنا ٢٦ المحاصل بازاء أيال وصاقبل الاخير وتقصنا منه واندن وضربناه في نصف ١٢ ورسمنا ألحاصل وهو ٢٢٠ بازاء وتنين وضربنا العشرة الباقية في تلث مارسم بازاء أيال ورسمنا المحاصل وهو ٢٢٠ بازاء والكعب ورسمنا المحلم و ورسمنا المحاصل وهو ٢١٠ بازاء الكعب ورسمنا المحاصل وهو ٢١٠ بازاء مال المحاب و تظيره ثم نقصنا منه اربعة وضربنا الثمانية الباقية في ما بازاء مال الكعب و تظيره ثم نقصنا ما بازاء مال مال ورسمنا المحاصل وهو ٢١٠ بازاء مال الكعب و تظيره ثم نقصنا ما بازاء مال الكعب و تظيره ثم نقصنا ما بازاء مال الكعب و وسمنا الحاصل وهو ١٢٠ بازاء مال الكعب وهايره ثم نقصنا بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه المحدد وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه وها المحدد وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه والعداد المرسوسة اصورة بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه ورته وهذه صورته بازاء كعب الكعب وهذه ورته و ورسمنا الحدد ورسمنا المحدد
اعداد اصول منا زل	آسا مى ضلع ومضلعات سابقه مضلع مطلوب
11	فلع
77	مال
rr.	كعب
* 190	مال مال
vir	مالكعب
911	کعب کعب
۷۱۲	مال مال كعب
410	مال کعب کعب
rr.	كمب كعب كعب
<u>"" </u>	مال مال كعب كعب
ir	مال كعب كعب كعب

فهذا المصلع من كل عدد مساو لمجموع هذ بن المصلعين لقسميه والذي عشر مثلاً لكل من القسمين في مال كعب كعب الاخر وسئة وستين مثلاً لمال كل مفهما في مال مال كعب كعب الاخر واربعسة ما نة وخمسة و ماتين وعشرين مثلاً لمال كل منهما في كعب كعب الاخر واربعسة ما نة وخمسة و تسعين مثلاً لمال كل منهما في مال كعب كعب الاخر وسبعما نة واثنين وتسعين مثلاً لمال كعب كعب احداثا كعب كعب احداثا في كعب كعب احداثا في كعب كعب الخروعلى هذا القياس غيرة

"Observe that the Radices Locorum of each power are numbers which are placed opposite the Latus Primum, and the preceding powers (i. e. the powers whose Indices are less than that of the power whose Radices Locorum or coefficients are required), and the method of discovering them is as follows: - Let the names of the Latus, and of the power preceding or lower than the given one, be written in a row of length (i. e. in a row from the top to the bottom of the page), and take the number of the index of this given power, and place it opposite site to the name of the Latus, then subtract from it, and multiply 1 of the remainder into the number which is placed opposite the Latus, or the contrary, (i. e. or multiply the remainder into half of that which is placed opposite the Latus), and place the product opposite the name of the square, then subtract 2 from it (viz. from the index of the given power), and multiply 1 of the remainder into that which is placed opposite the square or the contrary, and place the product opposite the cube, then subtract g from it, and multiply 4 of the remainder into that which is placed opposite the cube or the contrary, and place the product opposite the biquadrate, and so on to the end, and

then by a necessary consequence the same number will be found in every place, which is equally distant from the middle or the two middle ones; therefore, if you chuse it, write the first found figure, also in the last place, (i. e. in the present instance) that which is written opposite the Latus and square may be written opposite the biquadrate and cube, and so on till it be completed. For example, let it be required to find the Radices Locorum of the cubris cubi cubi cubi. Let us write from the Latus to the quadratics cubi cubi cubi as was directed, and let us write 12 which is the index of the given, power opposite the Latus and the last place, and subtract 1 from it, and let us multiply it into the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 12, and write 66 the product oppofite the square and the penultimate place, then subtract 2 from it, and multiply 10, which is the remainder, into 1 of what was written opposite the square, and write the product, which is 220, opposite the cube and that place which agrees with it (i. e. which is equally distant from the middle on the other side), then subtract 3 from it, and multiply of the remainder into $\frac{1}{4}$ of that which is opposite the cube, and write the product, which is 495, opposite the biquadrate and that which agrees with it, then subtract 4 from it, and multiply 8, the remainder, into 5 of that which is opposite the biquadrate, and write the product, which is 792, opposite the quadratics cubi and that which agrees with it, then subtract 5 from it, and multiply 7 the remainder into 16th of that which is opposite the quadratics cubi, and write the product, which is 924, opposite the cubris cubi, and then these numbers, so written, are the Radices Locorum of the cubris cubi cubi cubi, of which this is the table.

Names of the Powers preceding the given Power,	Numbers of Radices Locorum.
Latus	12
Square	66
Cube	220
Biquadrate	495
Quadratics cubi	792
Cubris cubi	924
Quadratics quadrati cubi'	792
Quadratics cubi cubi	495
Cubris cubi cubi	. 220
Quadratics quadrati cubi cubi	, 66
Quadratics cubi cubi cubi	: 12

Hence then this power of every number is equal to the sum of the powers of its two parts, and 12 times each of these two parts multiplied into the quadratics cubi cubi cubi of the other; and 66 times the square of each of them into the quadratics quadratic cubi cubi of the other; and 220 times the cubi of each of them into the cubris, cubi cubi of the other; and 495 times the biquadrate of each of them into the quadratics cubi cubi of the other; and 792 times the quadratics cubi of each of them into the quadratics quadratic cubi of the other; and 924 times the cubris cubi of one of them into the cubris cubi of the other, and so of other cases."

FROM this very clear rule it plainly appears, that whatever may have been the case in Europe, yet long before the time of Briggs the Arabians were acquainted with "the rule for generating the coefficients of the terms successively one from another, of any power of a Binomial independently of those of any other power;" and thus proof is added to the many others, that Musulmans, before the stimulus of Muhammed's newly imbibed doctrines had ceased and their narcotic effects began to appear, were much superior in science to contemporary Christians.

It is but justice that I should add, that my first knowledge of this rule was obtained from the Khazanut-ul Ilm, which is a complete system of Arithmetic, Algebra, and Geometry, as far as known to the Arabians and Hindus, composed in the present day by Khan Jee, a most intelligent inhabitant of Patna. On my requesting to know from what original authors the rule was taken, this gentleman was kind enough to favour me with the above extract. No more I think is required to demonstrate, that his own work highly deserves translation and publication.

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APPENDIX.

RULES

OF THE

ASIATICK SOCIETY.

THE following is an abstract of the Rules of this Institution, which are now in force, including those printed in the Appendix to the fixth and subsequent Volumes of the Society's Transactions:

Original Rules, adopted from the Fourler's discourse,

THAT the inflitution be denominated the Afiatick Society: that the bounds of its investigations be the geographical limits of Afia; and that within these limits, its enquiries be extended to whatever is performed by man or produced by nature.

THAT weekly meetings be held for the purpose of hearing origite papers read, on such subjects as fall within the circle of the Society's enquiries.

3. That all curious and learned men be invited to fend their tracts to the Secretary; for which they shall immediately receive the thanks of the Society.

- 4. That the Society's researches be published annually, if a sufficiency of valuable materials be received.
- 5. That mere translations of considerable length be not admitted, except of such unpublished essays or treatises as may be transmitted to the Society, by native authors.
- 6. That all questions be decided on a ballot, by a majority of two-thirds, and that nine Members be required to constitute a Board for such decisions.
- 7. That no new Member be admitted who has not expressed a voluntary desire to become so; and in that case, that no other qualification be required, than a love of knowledge, and a zeal for the promotion of it.

Subsequent resolutions of the Society, which are in force.

- 8. That the future meetings of the Society be held on the first Wednesday of each alternate month; viz. in the months of February, April, June, August, October, and December, at nine o'clock in the evening,
- 9. That if any business should occur to require intermed a meetings, they may be convened by the President; who may also, when necessary, appoint any other day of the week, instead of Wednesday, for the stated meetings of the Society.
 - 10. That as it may not always be convenient for the Prefit the

to attend the meetings of the Society, a certain number of Vice Presidents be elected annually.

- 11. That in case the President and the Vice Presidents should be absent at any meeting, a quarter of an hour after the fixed time, the Senior Member present shall take the chair for the evening.
- 12. That every Member of the Society have the privilege of introducing, as a vilitor, and gentleman who is not usually resident in Calcutta.
- 13. That with a view to provide funds for the necessary expences of the Society, an admission see he established, to consist of two gold mohurs, payable by every Member on his election; and that each Member of the Society, resident in India, (honorary Members excepted,) do also contribute a gold mohur quarterly, in the first week of January, April, July, and Ottober. Any Member neglecting to pay his subscription, for half a year after it becomes due, to be considered as no longer a Member of the Society.
 - 14. THAT a Treasurer be appointed.
 - 15. THAT in addition to the Secretary, an Affiliant Secretary, and Lagran, be also appointed.
 - 16 THAT a Committee of Papers be appointed, to confift of the officer, Vice Prefidents, Secretary, and nine that Alembers, to be foon and and that any number not less than five, be compand form a Committee.

- to the Society, such as may appear proper for publication, and superintend the printing of the Society's Transactions.
- 18. That the Commutee of papers be authorized to draw upon the Treasurer for any sums requisite to destray the expense of publishing the Transactions, and that an order, figured by a majority of the Committee, be a sufficient warrant to the Treasurer for paying the lame.
- 19. That the Committee of Papers be authorized to defray any small contingent expenses on account of the Society, which they may deem indispensable.
- 20. That the agents of the Society in England be defined to purchase and forward for the Society's Library, books of science and one ental literature published in Europe, taking care, that those purchases at no time exceed the funds arising from the sale of the Society's problematications.
- Agents in Europe, with such surther wish.

 quisite for their guidance in the selection of books proper in the Library of the Society.
- Refearches, a lift of such oriental subjects as may be considered in the light of desiderata, to be prepared by the Committee, from lists, submitted to the Society, by the Members or others.

 If the
 - 23. That as a testimonial to the merit of the best papers, conen

nicated to the Society, on the subjects proposed as defiderata, the author, when not a Member of the Society, be presented with the volume of Researches, wherein such paper is contained, accompanied with a complimentary letter from the Secretary, in the name of the Society.

- 24. That every subscribing Member of the Society be, on application, surnished with a cony of the 12th volume, as well as of any suture volumes of the Society's Transactions, in return for his contributions, without any surther rayment.
- 25. That with a view to the more general circulation of the Afiatick Refearches in India, the price of the 12th and future volumes, so non subscribers, be fixed at a gold mohur; and that if several volumes of different years be purchased together, they be sold at ten rupees each.

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MUSEUM.

26. On the 2d February 1814, the Society determined "upon forming a Museum for the reception of all articles that may tend to illustrate oriental manners, and history; or to elucidate the particularities of nature or art in the East." The following resolutions were at the same time passed upon the subject;

THAT this intention be made known to the public, and that contributions be folicited, of the undermentioned nature:

Inscriptions on stone or brass.

Ancient monuments, Muhammedan or Pindu.
Figures of the Hindu deities.
Ancient coius.

- 5. Ancient manuscripts.
- 6. Instruments of war, peculiar to the East.
- 7. Instruments of music.
- 82 The vessels employed in religious ceremonies.
- 9. Implements of native art and manufacture, &c. &c.
- 10. Animals peculiar to India, dried or preserved.
- 11. Skeletons or particular bones of animals peculiar to India.
- 12. Birds peculiar to India, stuffed or preserved.
- 13. Dried plants, fruits, &c.
- 14. Mineral or vegetable preparations in Eastern pharmacy.
- 15. Ores of metals:
- 16. Native alloys of metals.
- 17. Minerals of every description, &c. &c.
- brain of the Society, be hereafter published at the end of each volume of the Assatick Researches.
- 1996. Then the hall on the ground floor of the Society's house, be fitted up for the reception of the articles that may be proported; the plan and expences of fo doing, to be regulated by the Committee of Papers and Secretary, and the person under whose Subsemmendence the Museum may be placed.
- materials, furnished in a state unfit for preservation, be defrayed by the Society, within a certain and fixed extent.
- 31. That the thanks of the Society be given to Doctor Warry be for the tender of his fervices; and that he be appointed Surf the tendent of the Oriental Museum of the Asiatick Society.

- 32. On the 5th April 1815, in consequence of Doctor Wallich's being obliged to refide at some distance from Calcutta, it was resolved, at his fuggestion, to appoint a joint Superintendent of the Society's Museum, and Mr. WILLIAM LLOYD GIBBONS, who is also Affistant Secretary and Librarian to the Society, was accordingly requested to art as joint Superintendent with Doctor Wallich.
- 33. On the 7th June 1815, the Superintendents of the Museum were requified " to return the thanks of the Society to the person from whom any donation to the Museum has been received, and to make fimilar acknowledgments for any contribution which may be hereafter made to the Museum."

BIBLIOTHECA ASIATICA.

The following resolutions were passed, on the recommendation of the Committee of Papers, under date the ad July 1806. But materials have not yet been received for publishing a volume of the work therein proposed.

That the Society publish, from time to time, as their funds will admit of it, in volumes diffinet from the Afiatick Refearches, Franslations of short works in the Sauferit and other Afatick-languages, or oxidads and descriptive accounts of books of greater length in those des, which may be offered to the Society, and appear deferring of publication.

THAT as this publication may be expected gradually to extend to foon vick books, of which copies may be deposited in the Library of and ciety, and even to all works extant in the learned languages of Afia,

the feries of the volumes be entitled Bibliotheca Afiatica, or a descriptive catalogue of Asiatick books, with extracts and translations.

36. That the Committee of Papers, adopt such means as may appear proper, for making the intentions of the Society in this respect generally known.

Physical and Literary Committees.

- 37. At the suggestion of one of the Members of the Society, it was resolved, on the 7th September 1808; First. That a Committee be formed to propose such plans and carry on such correspondence as may seem best suited to promote the knowledge of natural history, philosophy, medicine, improvements of the arts, and whatever is comprehended in the general term of physics; to consist of such Members as may voluntarily undertake to meet for that purpose. Secondly. That a Committee be formed in like manner, for literature, philology, history, antiquities, and whatever is comprehended under the general term of literature.
- 38. The following Rules for the two Committees were also adopted by the Society, on the 5th Odober 1818.
- house belonging to the Asiatick Society, on the first and third Wedney-days, and the meetings of the Physical Committee on the second and fourth Wedneydays of each month, at the hour of nine o'clock in the evening: whenever a general meeting of the Asiatick Society may be held on the same evening, and at the same hour, the meeting of the Committee to be suspended. 2d. That each Committee be calen

RULES OF THE SOCIETY.

to all Members of the Afiatick Society, who may chuse to attend the meetings. 3d. That if the President of the Society be present at a meeting of either Committee, he shall preside; in his absence, one of the Vice Presidents, and in their absence, the eldest Member of the Society present at each meeting shall be considered as President at such meeting. 4th. That the Secretary to the Asiatick Society be requested to act as Secretary to the Literary Committeé, and the Assistant Secretary to the Society be requested to act as Secretary to the Physical Committee, as far as their time and avocations may admit. 5th. That a Deputy Secretary be also appointed for each Committee, to be elected at the next meeting of the two Committees respectively. 6th. That regular books of proceedings be kept by the Secretaries for each Committee, in which minutes shall be entered of all papers, communications, and acts done by the Committee? that such books be at all times open to the inspection of the Members of the Afistick Society; and that fuch papers be laid before the Society. as the Committee may judge proper to be submitted. 7th. That the correspondence of each Committee, be in general carried on through its Secretary or Deputy; but that it be at the discretion of the Committees, to employ any one of their Members to correspond with any individual.

39. That all articles prefented to the Museum, be delivered in the first instance to Dr. Wallien, to enable him to make the acknowledgement directed in the standing Rules of the Society.

At each Meeting of the Society.

THAT the Committee request Dr. Wallien to prepare, as foon is possible, a complete catalogue of all articles in the Museum, and to affix to each article proper marks of reference to the catalogue.

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the American Philadelphia

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Journal of the Academy of Natural Science of America, vol. 1st part 1st of 1817. Catalogue Plantarum Americae of 1818. Descriptio Uberior Graminum et Plantarum Calamariarum Americæ Septentrionalis Indigenarum et Cucurum: 1817.

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Col. YULE.

A Scythian-Lamb.

tary.

ERRATA.

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P. 3. L. 7.
                            read nine or nearly?
       L. 15. & 16. for square of the latitude, read square of the fine
                      of the latitude.
       L. 22.
                      for 366, read 3,66, fathoms.
P. 4. L. 3. &
                   4. for 23 and 559, read 2,3 and 5,59?
        L. 21.
                    for i read i
P. 5. L. 20.
                   for sou read -1
P. 6. L. 20.
                   for Punnal, read Punnar.
                    for ,00,384 read ,00384.
                     mean angle at Daumergidda between Doodallah
                      and Sheelapilly, for 59 20 44.95, read 59 20 44 94.
                     At Doodallah, between Daumergidda and Sheelapilly,
                     the mean angle is 70 25 46,50.
                     for µ Bootis, read & Bootis
                     for & Bootis, read & Bootis.
P. 110, L. 5 read X = X + o + m. Sin. 2 (L + 0) + m. Siv. 2 (L + 1)
      L. 6 read X = X + o + m. Sin. 2 (L + 0) + m. Sin. 2 (L + 1) + m. s. 2
(1+2)
P. 113. L. 4. for A \div F H, read A. F H
        L. A. & 5. for a^2 b^2 (a^2 - a^2 \sin^2 A + b^2 \sin^2 A)
                  read a^2 b^2 (a^2 - a^2 \sin^2 A + b^2 \sin^2 A).
      I_{L_{1}} for a^{2} (a-ac) (a^{2}-2ac. Sin.^{2}A)^{-\frac{1}{2}}
                  read a^2 (a-2). (a^2-2ac \sin^2 A)
                  for (a^2 - 2 a c. Sin.^2 A)^2 read (a^2 - 2 a c. Sin^2 A)^2
        L. 80
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for $(a - \frac{1}{2})$. $A - \frac{3}{4}c$. Sin. 2 A

read (a - 2). A + 2 c. Sin. 2 A

L. 13.

REMARKS. In page 100, where the French degree due to latitude 47 24 is 60795 fathoms; it was taken from vol. 2d of Col. Mudge's Survey; but there must have been some mistake, since in referring to the Buse du Système Métrique, vol. 3d p. 89, the distance between Dunkirk and Montjouy is 551683,6 toises, equal 587657,17 sathome, at the temperature of 32°, which reduced to 62°, will be 587475.4 fathoms; whereas, the distance between Dunkirk and Barcelona, (which is somewhat less than the distance between Dunkirk and Montjouy), is 587987 sathoms, as given in vol. 2d p. 112 (arc on the meridian) in Col. Mudge's Survey.

The mean degree, by the French measurement, due to latitude 46 it 58 (the middle point between Dunkirk and Montjouy), is 60728 fathoms, which appears too small. I have therefore, so the present, taken the mean degree as deduced from the arc between the Pantheon at Paris, and Evaux, which for latitude 47 30 46, is 60779 fathoms, reduced to the temperature of 62°; and, by substituting there in the formula, in p. 100, we shall have by the three comparisons with the French, measure, $\frac{1}{12} = \frac{1}{12} =$

In p. 114, the quantity 587937 fathoms is put for L, the length of the terrestrial arc between Dunkirk and Barcelona, whose difference of latitude is 94012,2=,168774, the length of the said arc to rad: unity. These data give size for the compression. If 587475,4 fathoms be put for L, as the terrestrial arc between Dunkirk and Montjouy, whose difference of latitude is 94024,24=1688327, then the result will give size nearly, for the compression; which differs

mon inter

latitude 46 i 1 58, with the three mean degree for latitudes 9 12 44.

The French mathematicians first made use of Bouguer's arc meafured at the equator, with that between Dunkirk and Montjour, which brought out a compression of Tir. But Delambre afterwards recomputed all the observations both of Bouguer and La Condamine, and ultimately brought out a compression of Tor nearly, which was dopted.

If the used in place of $\frac{1}{36x}$, in p. 108, to find X and X-X or d, we find have $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$, from which will be found $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ so $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ fathoms, and $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ fathoms, and $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ fathoms, and $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ fathoms, and $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ fathoms, and $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ fathoms, and $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ fathoms, and $\frac{A-nX}{36x}$ fathoms; from which data Table 2 was recomputed, and will stand as follows:

	Degrees.	La'itudes.
$X = X + 0$ tens whose the contract that (\cdot)	60175 47	9 34 34
X = X + d soos		
(3) (1) (3) (1) (1) $X = X + Q \left(\sin^2 t - \sin^2 t \right)$	60482,84	11 34 44
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	60487,02	12 34 44
$\begin{array}{l} \text{(3)} & \text{(1)} \\ \text{X} = \text{X} + Q & \text{(Sin.}^{2} t - \text{Sin.}^{2} t) & \cdots \end{array}$		
(6) $X = X + C (\sin^2 l - \sin^2 l) \dots$	60496.34	14 34 43
(7) (1) (7) (1)		
(8) (1) $X = X + Q (\sin^2 t - \sin^4 t) \dots$	50506.91	16 34 48
	60512.64	17 34 dik

KIV

From the Table, it appears, that the first degree by measurement is 3,6 fathoms in defect; and that the one in latitude 16 34 44 (which may be compared with X) is 5.89 fathoms in excess; and that the degree in latitude 13 34 44 is nearly the same in each; the mean being 60491,46 fathoms, which being put for m, and 133444 for l, and then substitued in the formula, we shall get 60459,2 fathoms for the degree on the meridian, whose middle point is on the equator; and the degree on the equatorial circle will be 60848 fathoms, Hence, 60848+57° &c. the arc equal radius, we shall produced a 3486334, and a = 6972668 fathoms, also b = 6950176 fathoms; whence, the quadrantal arc of the elliptic meridian will be found equal 5467494 fathoms; and, finally, the French metre 39,366 inches at the temperature of 62°, which falls short of that given by the French measurements, 0,005 inches.